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ABSTRACT

A study portrayed the methods and materials used in literature instruction in schools in a representative sample of schools nationally. It examined the contrasts among groups of schools that might be expected to differ in their approaches to the teaching of literature, and provided a portrait of "typical" practice. A random sample of 650 secondary schools, representing 82% of those contacted, participated in a survey of current practice in the teaching of literature. The schools were divided among five independent samples, including a representative sample of public schools, two samples of schools with award-winning programs and two nationally representative samples of private school traditions. Results indicated that: (1) in general, teachers of English are experienced and well-prepared; (2) the award-winning schools were disproportionately suburban; (3) literature has maintained its central place in the English curriculum, in spite of recent reforms focusing on the teaching of writing; (4) the English curriculum is dominated by familiar selections drawn primarily from a white, male, Anglo-Saxon tradition and chosen by the teacher from a literature anthology; (5) the typical high school literature class places heavy emphasis on whole-class discussions of text that all students read; (6) writing and literature are not independent components of the teaching of English; and (7) school library collections have been strengthened over the past 25 years but considerable room for improvement remains. Findings suggest that the teaching of literature is a relatively traditional enterprise. (Eighty-three tables of data are included; 54 references and the survey instruments are attached.) (RS)

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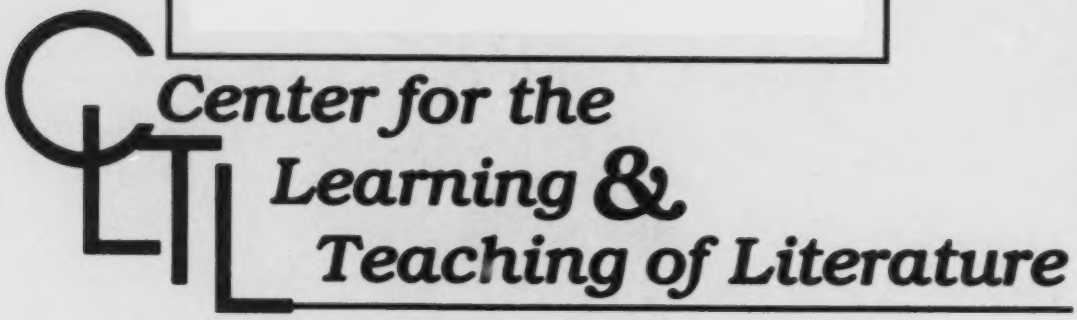
Literature Instruction in American Schools

Arthur N. Applebee



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University at Albany
State University of New York
School of Education
1400 Washington Avenue
Albany, New York 12222

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Arthur N. Applebee

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State University of New York
1400 Washington Avenue, Albany, New York 12222

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Literature Instruction in American Schools

Arthur N. Applebee
State University of New York
University at Albany

1. Introduction

During the past few years, the teaching of literature has become the focus of increasing attention both within the profession and from the public at large. Part of this attention has come from a concern that traditional cultural values are not receiving sufficient attention (e.g., Hirsch, 1987); part has come from attempts to reinforce the academic curriculum (e.g., Bennett, 1988); and part has come from teachers who have begun to question whether recent changes in writing instruction may have implications for the teaching of literature as well (e.g., Andrasick, 1990). Though some of these discussions have been intense, they have lacked a solid base of evidence about the characteristics of literature instruction as it is currently carried out in American schools. What goals do teachers propose to guide their teaching of literature? What selections do they use? How are these selections presented? To what extent are curriculum and instruction differentiated for students of differing interests or abilities?

To answer questions such as these, the Center for the Learning and Teaching of Literature has been carrying out a series of studies of the secondary school curriculum. The present report summarizes results from a survey designed to provide a broad portrait of methods and materials in representative samples of schools nationally. Previous studies in the series include a survey of the book-length works that are required in the secondary school (Applebee, 1989a), an analysis of the role of literary selections in published tests (Brody, DeMilo, & Purves, 1989), and case studies of programs in schools with reputations for excellence in English (Applebee, 1989b). A final study in the series will examine the content and teaching apparatus in secondary school literature anthologies.

The questions in the current study were structured to provide further information about a series of issues that had emerged from earlier work. These included questions about the nature of the selections that were taught and the factors governing their selection; the overall structure and goals for the curriculum, and the ways in which these vary for different subgroups of students; the literary theories that teachers turn to to guide their teaching; and the resources that are available to support the teaching of literature.

In examining instruction in English, there are a few major reference points to turn to for perspective. The most comprehensive study of the teaching of English in the past 30 years was James Squire and Roger Applebee's National Study of High School English Programs (1962-65). The Squire and Applebee study looked in depth at the English programs in 158 high schools around the country, all selected because of their excellence in the teaching of English. A team of trained observers visited each school for at least two days, observing classes and interviewing students, teachers, and administrators. Extensive questionnaires were also completed by staff and students at each site. The results from the Squire and Applebee study are avail-

able as a final report to the U.S. Office of Education (1966), and in a somewhat less detailed but more accessible published volume (Squire & Applebee, 1968). The study team also conducted a follow-up analysis of the teaching of English in the United Kingdom (Squire & Applebee, 1969).

At about the same time as the National Study of High School English programs, the Committee on the National Interest of the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) prepared two volumes designed to make the case that the teaching of English was vital to the national interest, and deserving of the same resources and concern that had been given to other subjects in the National Defense Education Act of 1958. The two volumes collate data from a variety of contemporary sources, supplemented with special surveys of schools and universities (Squire, 1961, 1964). The data they provide on typical practice and conditions offer a useful complement to the information on outstanding programs gathered by Squire and Applebee.

Other previous studies that provide useful points of comparison in tracking changes in the English curriculum include a survey of teaching conditions in English (A. Applebee, 1978), and the National Study of Writing in the Secondary School (A. Applebee, 1981, 1984).

Results from these earlier studies will be used where relevant to provide perspective on the results from the present study.

Competing Models of the English Language Arts

The surveys reported here took place against a background of a variety of movements beginning in the 1970s that have affected the teaching of the English language arts in general and the teaching of literature in particular. One important set of movements affecting the teaching of English has come from outside the profession. In the 1970s, public concern about students' abilities to perform successfully in the job market led to a widespread emphasis on "basic skills." This in turn led to the institutionalization of a variety of forms of minimum competency testing in the majority of states, and reinforced a "language skills" emphasis in the teaching of the English language arts. The emphasis on basic skills prompted its own reaction during the following decade, in the form of a reassertion of the traditional values of a liberal education. Calls for a return to "excellence," for more emphasis on academic coursework, and for the preservation of "cultural literacy" are all rooted in this liberal (and paradoxically, in this context, conservative) tradition. Like the emphasis on basic skills that preceded it, this emphasis also came largely from outside the professional education community but has led to a widespread reexamination of curriculum and materials in the teaching of the English language arts.

Even as these external calls have been shaping the teaching of English, leaders of the profession have been searching for a new basis for the curriculum. The difficulty of that process was evident in a report from the NCTE Commission on the English Curriculum. Three Language Arts Curriculum Models (Mandell, 1980) did not attempt to reconcile the many competing models within the profession, but instead presented three alternative, comprehensive curriculum models for prekindergarten through college. The three models represent long-standing traditions in the English language arts: one was student-centered, emphasizing "personal growth"; one was content-centered, emphasizing the preservation of a cultural heritage; and one

was skill-centered, emphasizing the development of language competencies.

In contrast to the eclecticism represented by the Curriculum Commission volume, the most fully developed models to be offered for language arts instruction in recent years have been based on constructivist theories of language use and language development. Constructivist approaches have a variety of roots, with related frameworks emerging in fields as seemingly diverse as linguistics, psychology, history of science, sociology, and philosophy (on constructivist theories, see Langer & Applebee, 1986; Applebee, in press). What scholars in this tradition share is a view of knowledge as an active construction built up by the individual acting within a social context that shapes and constrains that knowledge, but that does not determine it in an absolute sense.

Constructivist theory involves an important shift in what counts as knowledge, and by implication what should be taught in schools. From a constructivist perspective, notions of "objectivity" and "factuality" lose their preeminence, being replaced by notions of the central role of the individual learner in the "construction of reality" (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). Instruction becomes less a matter of transmittal of an objective and culturally sanctioned body of knowledge, and more a matter of helping individual learners learn to construct and interpret for themselves. There is a shift in emphasis from content knowledge to processes of language and thought, processes that are shaped by and also help students to become part of the cultural communities in which they participate. The challenge for educators is how in turn to embed this new emphasis into the curricula they develop and implement.

In the English language arts, constructivist frameworks have been particularly appealing to scholars who have emphasized the skills and strategies that contribute to ongoing processes of language use.[1] During the 1970s and early 1980s, process-oriented approaches dominated writing instruction and affected reading instruction as well, particularly through the whole language movement which sought an integrated approach to all aspects of the language arts (Goodman, 1986). Although process-oriented approaches developed first in the teaching of writing and reading and have been slower to develop in the teaching of literature, teachers and scholars who have been convinced of the value of process-oriented approaches to the teaching of writing have begun to look for ways to extend these approaches to other areas of the curriculum as well (Applebee, 1989b; Langer, 1984, 1989, 1990; Purves, 1990).

Responding to the tension between external calls for basic skills and a traditional liberal curriculum, and the emerging focus within the profession on process-oriented approaches, NCTE, the Modern Language Association, and five other organizations concerned with the teaching of English as a first or second language formed an English Coalition to consider common problems and issues. As one part of their activities, they jointly sponsored a three-week conference during which some sixty educators met daily to find common ground for their teaching of the language arts. Their report, The English Coalition Conference: Democracy through Language (Lloyd-Jones & Lunsford, 1989), is firmly within a constructivist tradition. The conference emphasized the role of students as "active learners" and argued, as the introduc-

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1. Though constructivist theories and process approaches have been closely linked, they are not identical. Process approaches also have been associated with earlier "personal growth" models, and with stage models that have little to do with constructivist theories of knowing.

tion to the report explained, that learning "inevitably unites skills and content in a dynamic process of practice and assimilation" (xxiii). Although conference participants found themselves in some agreement about goals and directions for the teaching of the English language arts, they failed to provide clear guidelines for the curriculum. Caught in a reaction against prescriptive "lists"-- whether of texts to read or skills to learn-- the conference found no broader structuring principles to offer. Believing that constructivist, process-oriented approaches were important, they were left with an unresolved tension between the processes they believed to be important and the content and skills that students learn. Instead of a unifying framework, the report presents a variety of alternatives and options, each of which is valuable in itself but which together do not provide a sense of unity and direction for the curriculum as a whole. In this regard, the report abandoned the overt eclecticism of the earlier volume (Mandell, 1980) without offering a viable alternative.

The survey reported here, then, takes place against the background of considerable movement within the teaching of the English language arts. Constructivist approaches have made a large contribution to the theory guiding the teaching of writing and reading, but have a less clearly developed relationship to the teaching of literature. Older frameworks, stressing basic skills, liberal education, and personal growth, continue to assert themselves. Newer frameworks, deriving from constructivist principles, have gained considerable influence but have yet to result in well-articulated guidelines for curriculum and instruction.

In the chapters that follow, we will examine the kinds of frameworks teachers have constructed for themselves out of these competing models to provide some sort of order and coherence to their professional lives.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of the methods that were used to carry out the study, including details of the schools and departments that agreed to participate. Chapter 3 presents data on the characteristics of the schools and teachers, including their reports on teaching conditions and on the overall strengths and weaknesses that they perceive in the program in English. Chapter 4 examines teachers' goals for the teaching of literature, and the ways those goals are translated into a framework for the curriculum as a whole, including the relationship of literature instruction to the other components of English. Chapter 5 turns to the content of the literature curriculum, as reflected in the sources of literary selections and in the titles and authors that are chosen for study. Chapter 6 moves from what is taught to how it is taught, exploring the critical orientations, teaching techniques, and assessment methods that teachers report using with selections of different sorts. Chapter 7 examines recent changes in writing instruction, and the extent to which these changes have had any impact on the curriculum in literature. Chapter 8 turns to the school library, examining its characteristics and uses as a resource in the teaching of literature. Finally, chapter 9 provides a brief overview of literature instruction as it emerges across these various sets of data, and outlines a series of continuing issues that represent the growing points in current theory and practice in the teaching and learning of literature.

2. Procedures

Samples

The study was designed to allow contrasts among groups of schools that might be expected to differ in their approaches to the teaching of literature, as well as to provide a portrait of "typical" practice. To that end, five independent samples of schools were selected to participate in the study. These included a nationally representative sample of public schools, two samples of award-winning schools that had been singled out for the excellence of their English programs, and two samples representing alternative, private school traditions of literature instruction:

Public Schools

A random sample of approximately 450 public secondary schools was drawn to be representative of schools across the nation. The sample was stratified by size and by level. (For level, sampling focused separately on schools that included Grade 7 and schools that included Grade 12, in order to insure representation of the middle and high school grades across the variety of different ways public schools are organized.) Sampling fractions were proportional to enrollment. This insured that small schools, which are relatively large in number but which reflect the educational experiences of relatively small proportions of teachers and students, would not be overrepresented in the results.

Achievement Award Schools

The first sample of award-winning schools consisted of schools that consistently had had winners in the NCTE Achievement Awards in Writing program. The Achievement Awards program honors students rather than schools, on the basis of writing samples evaluated by state-level panels. For the present study, all schools that had had winners in at least four of the past five years were selected by tallying winning schools each year from the published lists of student winners. After eliminating schools that had merged or closed, there were 94 schools left in this sample. The Achievement Award schools were predominantly public, but included some Catholic and independent schools.

Centers of Excellence

The second sample of award-winning schools consisted of all middle and secondary schools that had been recognized by NCTE in either of the first two rounds of the Centers of Excellence program. This program, which began in 1987, recognized schools on the basis of the excellence of one or another aspect of their program in English. Of these, 69 schools met the grade-level criteria for the present study and were included in the sample. Again, the Centers of Excellence were predominantly public, but included some Catholic and independent schools.

Catholic Schools

A national random sample of approximately 100 Catholic schools was drawn, since these schools are usually presumed to have a history and tradition of literature instruction that differs from that in public schools. This sample focused on schools that contained Grades 9 through 12, with sampling fractions proportional to school size.

Independent Schools

A national random sample of approximately 100 independent schools was also drawn, following the same procedures as were used for the Catholic school sample. Again, these schools are often presumed to differ substantially in their approaches to instruction, and are sometimes offered as models for public schools to emulate.

Mailing lists for these samples were completed with the help of NCTE and of Market Data Retrieval, Inc.

Instruments

Three instruments were prepared, piloted, and revised: a department chair questionnaire, a teacher questionnaire (Forms A, B, and C), and a librarian questionnaire. To encourage responses, each instrument was limited to a single page (two sides), with parallel forms being used in random subsamples to provide a broader base of information. Responses to open-ended questionnaires and interviews from the previous series of case studies (Applebee, 1989b) were used to derive wordings and response options for the present study, which relied primarily on fill-in-the-blank and precoded formats (e.g., rating scales, check lists, and multiple-option items).

Department Chair Questionnaire

This instrument focused on general characteristics of the school, department, English curriculum, assessment of achievement, and literature anthologies currently in use. Chairs were also asked to select three "good teachers of literature" at specified grade levels to be asked to complete the teacher questionnaires.

Teacher Questionnaires

This set of instruments focused on several areas: background and preparation for teaching literature; emphasis on different components of the literature curriculum; teaching techniques; perceived strengths and weaknesses of the program; influences on book selection; use of the library; and relationships between the teaching of writing and the teaching of literature. Questions were organized in three parallel forms which were used with random subsamples of teachers. These parallel forms contained a common set of background questions and then went

on to ask about different aspects of instruction.

Librarian Questionnaire.

This instrument focused on library and media resources available to support the literature program; coordination between the librarian and the English department; and book selection policies.

Copies of these instruments are included in the Appendix.

Procedures

Department chairs (identified by name) in the selected schools were contacted by mail beginning in February 1989 and asked to participate in the study. The initial mailing included the department chair questionnaire and asked the chair to select three "good teachers of literature" at specified grades to complete teacher questionnaires. The letter asked that these teachers be chosen to be representative of the literature program across grades and tracks. Instruments were completed anonymously, but with a school code to allow analysis and follow-up of nonrespondents.

One week later, a second mailing included the teacher questionnaires and a duplicate of the department chair questionnaire. The chair was asked to distribute these instruments to the selected teachers, and to complete the chair's questionnaire if he or she had not already done so. Individual reply envelopes were provided for each instrument.

Follow-up telephone calls to nonrespondents continued through the closing of the school year.

Librarians were contacted in a separate mailing, with a separate follow-up to nonrespondents.

During September and October 1989, another round of follow-up activities was initiated. This involved an additional mailing to all schools that had not yet returned all questionnaires, and telephone follow-ups to all schools that had not yet participated.

As questionnaires were returned they were logged and coded for data entry.

Participation Rates

Table 2.1 summarizes the number of schools in each of the initial samples (eliminating duplicate listings, closed schools, or faulty addresses), the number that participated, and the response rates. Because of the sampling design, with one set of instruments going to the English department and another to the school library, participation rates are summarized separately for the school, the English department, and the library. Overall, the participation rates were quite good for a direct-mail survey of this type. They ranged from 74 percent of the public schools

Table 2.1

Participation Rates, by Sample

	Public Schools	Achievement Award Schools	Centers of Excellence	Catholic Schools	Independent Schools	Chi-Square (df=4)
School						
Sample size	445	94	69	98	90	
Number responding	331	88	68	85	78	
Response rates	74.4%	93.6%	98.6%	86.7%	86.7%	41.05***
Departments						
Sample size	445	94	69	98	90	
Number responding	271	77	64	64	65	
Response rate	60.9%	81.9%	92.8%	65.3%	72.2%	39.15***
Libraries						
Sample size	443	93	69	98	90	
Number responding	204	60	41	60	46	
Response rate	46.0%	64.5%	59.4%	61.2%	51.1%	17.00**

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

in the random sample to 99 percent of those that had been selected as Centers of Excellence by the National Council of Teachers of English. In all samples, participation rates were better for the English department than for the library.

Tables 2.2 and 2.3 summarize differences between participating and nonparticipating schools on a few characteristics for which additional data were available. They indicate no significant differences between participating and nonparticipating schools in average per pupil expenditures on instructional materials or in school size. There was a significant difference by region, however, with participation rates somewhat less for schools in the western region (76 percent) and somewhat higher for those in the central and southeastern regions (86 percent). Participation rates for schools in the northeast fell in between (81 percent).

The results comparing participating and nonparticipating schools, as well as a variety of follow-up analyses which showed no differences in the patterns of resources available in early- and late-replying schools, lead to the conclusion that the results are likely to be reasonably representative of instruction in literature programs nationally. The one bias that is likely to influence the results is built into the design of the study. Because the survey explicitly focused on the teaching of literature, and because departments were asked to select good teachers to report on instructional practice, the portrait of instruction that results is likely to be biased toward what is presently perceived as good practice. The responses will represent a "best perceived case" of the state of literature instruction, rather than a negative one.

Gender of Respondents

Respondents were not asked directly about their gender. However, by examining the names and titles of those who gave them (about a quarter of the sample), we were able to estimate the proportion of women responding to the three sets of questionaires. Across samples, 63 percent of the department chairs, 91 percent of the librarians, and 72 percent of the teachers were women.

If we take the proportion of teachers who are women as a baseline, opportunities for promotion to department chair were nearly gender neutral in the random sample of public schools (where 74 percent of teachers and 71 percent of chairs were women), biased toward women in the Catholic school samples (72 percent of teachers, 84 percent of chairs), and biased against women in the two samples of award-winning schools (74 percent of teachers, 51 percent of chairs) and the independent schools (60 percent of teachers, 46 percent of chairs).

Specific Classes Reported On

To focus their descriptions of content and approaches in the teaching of literature, teachers were asked to select a specific class and period as the basis for many of their questionnaire responses. Table 2.4 summarizes a variety of characteristics of the classes they chose.

In the cover letters that accompanied the questionnaires, department chairs were asked to distribute the questionnaires in a way that would provide a representative picture of the program as a whole. From the results summarized in Table 2.4, they appear to have done so. In

Table 2.2

School Participation Rates, by Size and Region

	Sample Size	Number Responding	Percent Responding	Chi-Square (df=3)
School size				7.43
Under 500	179	140	78.2	
500-1499	435	348	80.0	
1500-2499	109	98	89.9	
2500 +	17	15	88.2	
Region				8.87*
Northeast	206	167	81.1	
Southeast	152	130	85.5	
Central	220	188	85.5	
Western	218	165	75.7	

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 2.3

Per Pupil Expenditures on Instructional Materials in Participating and Non-participating Schools

	Mean	(SD)	F-Statistic (df=1;442)
Participating schools (n=330)	$93.25	(36.45)	0.28
Non-participating schools (n=114)	91.18	(35.74)	

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 2.4

Characteristics of English Courses Chosen for Detailed Reporting
(Teacher Reports, Forms A, B, and C)

		Public Schools (n=512)	Achievement Award Schools (n=181)	Centers of Excellence (n=155)	Catholic Schools (n=131)	Independent Schools (n=108)	
Grade level							
Junior high/middle	%	26.2	2.8	16.3	1.5	10.5	Chi-Square(8)=91.52***
Grades 9-10	%	35.1	34.3	32.7	42.3	37.1	
Grades 11-12	%	38.7	62.9	51.0	56.2	52.4	
Track							
Non-College	%	11.3	6.0	5.2	6.2	3.7	Chi-Square(8)=66.40***
Mixed	%	38.8	19.2	32.5	14.6	27.8	
College Preparatory	%	49.9	74.7	62.3	79.2	68.5	
Number of students	M	25.3	25.8	24.6	27.1	19.7	F(4;1032)=14.99***
	(SD)	(7.5)	(6.6)	(6.4)	(8.3)	(10.1)	
Course title							
English language arts	%	58.4	36.5	47.7	44.3	45.4	Chi-Square(24)=74.38***
Differentiated by level							
Remedial	%	2.0	1.1	1.9	.8	4.6	
College Preparatory	%	17.4	29.8	18.1	13.7	13.0	
Non-College	%	.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
Differentiated by content							
Literature	%	19.1	31.5	31.6	39.7	37.0	
Writing	%	1.0	1.1	.6	.8	0.0	
Other	%	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.0	
Type of Course							
Required	%	79.6	50.8	62.9	80.5	75.5	Chi-Square(8)=71.52***
Option in a required area	%	16.4	35.6	25.8	18.0	17.9	
Elective	%	4.0	13.6	11.3	1.6	6.6	

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

the public school sample, 26 percent of the focal classes were at the junior high or middle school level, 35 percent were at Grades 9 or 10, and 39 percent at Grades 11 or 12. (The small proportions of junior high and middle school classes chosen in the other samples reflect the school organization and sampling frame, rather than a response bias.) Teachers' reports of the average number of students in these particular classes are quite close to their more general reports about teaching conditions (discussed in chapter 3, below). So too are their reports on the extent to which these classes represent required courses or electives (discussed in chapter 4).

Fully half of the focal classes in the public school sample were college preparatory, which at first glance may seem high. However, U.S. Department of Education statistics (Ancarrow & Gerald, 1990) on public schools indicate that 49.8 percent of 12th grade students are in college preparatory classes (compared with 49.9 percent of the focal classes in the present study), as are 75 percent of 12th grade students in private schools (compared with 79 percent in the Catholic and 69 percent in the independent school samples in the present study). An additional 39 percent of the public school classes were heterogeneously grouped.

Summary

A total of 650 schools, representing 82 percent of those contacted, participated in this survey of current practice in the teaching of literature. The schools were divided among five independent samples, including a representative sample of public schools, two samples of schools with award-winning programs (consistent Achievement Award winners, Centers of Excellence), and two nationally representative samples of private school traditions (Catholic, independent).

To provide a comprehensive view of the program in literature, staff in participating schools were asked to complete a department chair questionnaire, a librarian questionnaire, and three parallel forms of a teacher questionnaire. Although response rates were high overall, the design of the study, which allowed department chairs to select the participating teachers and the teachers to select "representative" classes, is biased toward literature instruction at its best in each school.

The five samples of schools in the present study were chosen to reflect several different traditions of instruction in literature. Two of the samples (Achievement Award schools and Centers of Excellence) represent schools singled out for excellence in instruction and achievement in English; the other three reflect public, independent, and Catholic school traditions. There are also differences among the samples in the students and communities they serve, however, and these may also contribute to similarities and differences in the program in literature.

Some of these differences in student and community characteristics are summarized in Table 3.1. Compared with the random sample of public schools, the Achievement Award schools and the Centers of Excellence are disproportionately suburban in the communities they serve. They also graduate a higher proportion of students and send a higher proportion of their graduates on to college. The Catholic schools in the sample are located primarily in urban or suburban areas that have the population density to support them, but are much smaller than their public school counterparts, and report the highest graduation rate of any of the samples. The schools in the independent school sample serve primarily suburban communities or draw from a wide area, send the highest proportion of those who graduate on to college, and have the smallest enrollments.

Table 3.2 summarizes the training and experience reported by the English teachers in the various samples. In general, the English departments in all of the samples seem blessed with a well-qualified and experienced teaching staff. In the public school sample, the teachers averaged over 14 years of teaching experience, and 61 percent had attained an advanced degree beyond their bachelors. Seventy-six percent had majored in English as an undergraduate, and only 5 percent reported no formal concentration in English or a related field.

Teachers in both samples of award-winning schools reported on average somewhat more years of teaching experience than those in the other samples, and were also more likely to have pursued graduate studies beyond the masters degree (52 to 55 percent, compared with 34 percent in the public school sample). Teachers in the Catholic school sample had slightly fewer years of experience than those in the other samples, and were somewhat less likely to have accrued additional hours beyond the masters. In the independent school sample, the teachers responding were somewhat more likely to report having no concentration in English at either the undergraduate or graduate level (7 percent). This may reflect the multiple-subject teaching assignments that are sometimes necessary in very small schools, together with the lack of certification requirements which makes such assignments more possible.

In comparison with previous studies, the results in the present study reflect a continuing improvement in the background and training of the teaching profession. In the early 1960s, an NCTE survey (Squire, 1964) found that only 34 percent of the English teachers in a randomly selected national sample had obtained their masters degrees, compared with 60 percent in the present survey. Similarly, Squire and Applebee's (1968) study of outstanding English programs in the early 1960s found 51 percent of the teachers with masters degrees, compared with the 74 to 78 percent in the present samples of award-winning schools.

Table 3.1

Characteristics of the Students and the Community, by Sample
(Department Chair Reports)

	Public Schools (n=196)	Achievement Award Schools (n=60)	Centers of Excellence (n=47)	Catholic Schools (n=50)	Independent Schools (n=48)
Community Type					
Primarily urban (%)	14.3	23.3	19.1	36.0	8.3
Primarily suburban (%)	26.0	61.7	48.9	38.0	41.7
Primarily small town (%)	18.9	3.3	14.9	4.0	18.8
Primarily rural (%)	27.0	0.0	0.0	4.0	0.0
Mixed (%)	13.8	11.7	17.0	18.0	31.3
Percent of minority students					
Mean	26.2	21.0	26.1	20.5	21.3
(SD)	(24.5)	(19.1)	(26.1)	(24.4)	(25.5)
Total enrollment					
Mean	1112.6	1550.7	1194.7	696.7	494.8
(SD)	(1067.5)	(619.2)	(636.9)	(414.6)	(446.8)
Percent of entering students who graduate					
Mean	85.0	90.6	88.3	95.4	88.2
(SD)	(18.4)	(15.0)	(21.2)	(6.0)	(19.1)
Percent of graduates who go to college					
Mean	51.7	75.8	67.5	86.2	89.1
(SD)	(23.4)	(15.5)	(26.0)	(15.5)	(12.9)

Table 3.2

Training and Experience of the Teachers, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Forms A, B, and C)

		Public Schools (n=517)	Achievement Award Schools (n=182)	Center of Excellence (n=155)	Catholic Schools (n=129)	Independent Schools (n=108)	
Years of teaching experience	M	14.4	17.4	15.7	12.7	13.4	F(4;1086)=9.47***
	(SD)	(7.6)	(7.4)	(7.6)	(8.2)	(8.2)	
Highest degree							Chi-Square(12)=57.30***
Bachelors	%	39.5	22.4	25.8	40.5	34.5	
Masters	%	26.5	23.0	21.9	34.4	27.3	
Masters plus hours	%	30.4	52.5	45.2	22.1	32.7	
Doctorate	%	3.7	2.2	7.1	3.1	5.5	
Preparation in English or a related field							
Undergraduate major	%	76.1	79.2	86.1	85.3	68.8	Chi-Square(4)=16.38*
Undergraduate minor	%	17.9	16.8	10.4	10.9	20.2	Chi-Square(4)=8.58
Graduate preparation	%	50.1	63.3	57.5	47.3	57.8	Chi-Square(4)=12.72**
None	%	4.5	.6	1.4	0.0	7.3	Chi-Square(4)=18.29***

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

It is also interesting to consider variations in training and experience for different groups of students. Table 3.3 presents the data on training and experience broken down by a variety of community and student factors. The data reinforce some aspects of the conventional wisdom about career patterns but not others: teachers in suburban schools, which are typically wealthier, are considerably more likely to have at least a masters degree, and so are the teachers who teach the upper grades (11 and 12) and the college preparatory tracks. The data do not support a notion that teachers are abandoning urban schools, or schools with high proportions of minority students, however. Teachers in those contexts were just as likely as their peers to have completed advanced coursework, and they averaged an equivalent number of years of experience.

Although all five groups of schools had experienced, well-qualified teachers, the conditions under which they taught varied widely among the samples. A variety of aspects of teaching load are summarized in Table 3.4. In the random sample of public schools, the typical teacher reported teaching five classes per day with just over 24 students per class, or a total of 121 students in all. Nearly a quarter of these teachers taught more than five classes per day, however, and 72 percent exceeded the NCTE-recommended maximum of 100 students per day (this recommendation was changed to 80 students per day in 1990). Conditions in the Catholic school sample were similar to those in the public schools. In the two samples of award-winning schools, class sizes were about the same as in the public schools, but teachers reported on average meeting with somewhat fewer students per day (112 to 116, instead of 121), and only 2 to 5 percent taught more than five classes. In the independent school sample, class sizes were smaller (averaging 18 students) and so was the total number of students met each day (averaging 79). Some 70 percent of the teachers in the independent schools met the NCTE-recommended criterion of no more than 100 students per day.

Teaching loads reported in the present study can be compared with those found in an earlier NCTE survey (Squire, 1961) of English instruction. In that study, teachers reported meeting an average of 130 students per day; this had dropped to 127 in a 1977 survey (Applebee, 1978); and to 121 in the corresponding public school sample in the present study. In 1961, 81 percent also reported more than 100 students each day, compared with 72 percent in the present study. Both sets of figures suggest a gradual improvement in teaching loads in English over the past 30 years.

Table 3.5 explores variations in teaching load with type of community served and the proportion of minority students. Unlike the data on the preparation and experience of teachers, these results show urban schools at a clear disadvantage. Teachers in urban schools reported meeting, on average, 134 students each day, compared with 119 in suburban schools. Similarly, teachers in schools whose student bodies were 50 percent or more minority reported meeting, on average, 127 students each day, compared with 119 in schools with fewer than 10 percent minority students.

Special Programs and Activities

Department chairs were asked about a variety of special programs and activities that might support or interact with the teaching of literature. Table 3.6 summarizes their responses to a set of questions that asked them to estimate the percent of students affected by programs of

Table 3.3

Training and Experience, by Selected Student and Community Variables: Public Schools
(Teacher Reports, Forms A, B, and C)

		Percent of Teachers with Masters or Higher Degree	Years of Teaching Experience M (SD)
Type of community served			
Urban	(n=49)	57.1	15.8 (8.1)
Suburban	(n=98)	71.4	15.9 (7.7)
Small town	(n=71)	52.1	14.6 (7.2)
Rural	(n=93)	59.1	13.2 (7.2)
Mixed	(n=57)	56.1	14.1 (7.5)
		Chi-Square(4)=7.73	F(4;365)=1.94
Percent of minority students			
Less than 10%	(n=181)	57.5	13.6 (7.6)
10-24%	(n=77)	61.0	15.1 (8.1)
25-49%	(n=82)	59.8	14.6 (7.4)
50% or more	(n=63)	60.3	15.5 (7.1)
		Chi-Square(3)=0.37	F(3;402)=1.37
Level			
Junior high/middle	(n=132)	53.5	13.7 (7.9)
Grades 9-10	(n=170)	55.7	13.4 (7.3)
Grades 11-12	(n=195)	70.8	15.6 (7.5)
		Chi-Square(2)=12.97*	F(2;500)=4.48**
Track			
Non-academic	(n=58)	55.2	14.1 (8.8)
Mixed	(n=199)	54.6	13.0 (7.4)
College preparatory	(n=257)	66.1	15.5 (7.2)
		Chi-Square(2)=6.98*	F(2;511)=6.56**

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 3.4

Teaching Loads Reported by Teachers, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Forms A, B, and C)

		Public Schools (n=511)	Achievement Award Schools (n=181)	Centers of Excellence (n=155)	Catholic Schools (n=131)	Independent Schools (n=106)		
Number of classes per day	M	5.0	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.3	F(4;1079)=	18.52***
	(SD)	(.9)	(.7)	(.7)	(1.2)	(1.2)		
Teachers estimates of average class size	M	24.3	25.2	23.8	25.5	17.7	F(4;1079)=	47.92***
	(SD)	(5.2)	(4.2)	(4.7)	(4.7)	(6.3)		
Number of different preparations	M	3.0	2.5	2.7	2.9	3.0	F(4;1079)=	7.13***
	(SD)	(1.2)	(.7)	(.9)	(1.0)	(1.1)		
Number of students per day [a]	M	121.0	116.3	111.6	121.6	79.1	F(4;1074)=	37.22***
	(SD)	(32.4)	(27.9)	(29.3)	(38.7)	(41.1)		
Percent teaching more than 5 classes	%	23.3	1.7	5.2	17.6	10.4	Chi-Square(4)=	66.53***
Percent teaching more than 100 students	%	71.9	68.3	60.8	76.3	30.2	Chi-Square(4)=	77.19***

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

[a] Estimated as number of classes taught x average class size.

Table 3.5

Relationships among Teaching Load, Type of Community, and Proportion of Minority Students: Public Schools

		Number of Students/Day		Teachers' Estimates of Average Class Size		Percent Teaching More than 100 Students/Day
		M	(SD)	M	(SD)	
Type of Community Served						
Urban	(n=49)	133.8	(33.6)	27.0	(5.2)	81.6%
Suburban	(n=97)	118.7	(27.3)	25.2	(4.5)	71.1%
Small town	(n=69)	116.7	(31.6)	23.3	(5.2)	69.6%
Rural	(n=93)	115.2	(36.7)	22.1	(5.6)	67.7%
Mixed	(n=56)	129.7	(30.5)	24.8	(5.3)	76.8%
		F(4;359)=4.19**		F(3;400)=6.13***		Chi-Square(4)=3.98
Percent of Minority Students						
Less than 10%	(n=181)	119.2	(36.0)	23.2	(5.6)	70.2%
10-24%	(n=70)	120.5	(25.1)	24.0	(4.4)	75.0%
25-49%	(n=81)	122.0	(31.3)	25.2	(5.2)	67.9%
50% or more	(n=61)	127.3	(32.6)	26.2	(5.6)	78.7%
		F(3;395)=0.95		F(3;400)=6.13***		Chi-Square(3)=2.66

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 3.6

Special Programs Affecting the Teaching of Literature
(Department Chair Reports)

		Mean Percent of Students Affected by Program					
		Public Schools (n=182)	Achievement Award Schools (n=63)	Centers of Excellence (n=46)	Catholic Schools (n=52)	Independent Schools (n=49)	F-Statistic df=4;353
Advanced placement classes	Mean	12.7	12.8	16.2	13.9	14.9	
	(SD)	(18.3)	(8.7)	(22.7)	(13.5)	(19.9)	0.47
Project EQuality	Mean	1.3	2.6	.6	3.2	2.3	
	(SD)	(8.8)	(14.5)	(3.2)	(15.2)	0.41	
Humanities courses	Mean	14.3	16.5	22.4	24.6	25.6	
	(SD)	(28.3)	(25.6)	(33.2)	(33.9)	(37.1)	2.05
Team taught courses	Mean	5.5	6.5	20.4	6.4	5.7	
	(SD)	(17.9)	(14.3)	(33.5)	(23.0)	(13.7)	5.02***
Remedial reading or writing courses	Mean	13.1	11.2	17.8	9.3	14.9	
	(SD)	(15.4)	(14.9)	(26.0)	(10.2)	(25.0)	1.66

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

various types.

In the public school sample, the department chairs reported that about 13 percent of their students were in Advanced Placement courses, and 13 percent in remedial reading or writing courses. Both figures were relatively constant across the other four samples of schools. A similar percentage (14 percent) were likely to take humanities courses, a figure that was considerably higher in the Catholic (25 percent) and independent (26 percent) school samples. Project EQuality, a newer College Board-sponsored program designed to prepare at-risk students for college, affected no more than 3 percent of the students in any of the samples. Team teaching was rare, affecting on average only 6 percent of the students in the public school sample. Team teaching was much more popular in the Centers of Excellence, however, where the department chairs reported that on average 20 percent of their students would be affected by team teaching as part of their literature instruction.

Table 3.7 summarizes department chairs' reports about a variety of extracurricular, school-sponsored activities that might contribute to students' learning of literature. The most popular of these were journalism and drama, both available in 70 percent of the public schools, and a literary magazine, available in nearly half the schools. Other activities, such as a debate club, creative writing club, or Great Books program, were considerably less widely available.

In general, the award-winning schools were somewhat more likely than the random sample of public schools to have each of these activities available to their students, particularly so for a literary magazine and a debate club. The two samples of award-winning schools each averaged 3.6 literature-related extracurricular activities (out of 8), compared with 2.5 for the random sample of public schools. The Catholic and independent schools fell in between, sponsoring an average of 2.9 out of the 8 specific activities that were listed. As would be expected, availability of these various activities was also related to school size, with larger schools being more likely than smaller schools to offer more activities ($r = .23$, $n = 278$, $p < .001$).

Teachers' Reports of Strengths and Weaknesses of the Program in English

Teachers within a school have a special perspective on the resources available and the constraints upon what they do in the classroom. To draw on their perspectives, teachers were asked to indicate the extent to which a variety of aspects of their English program could be seen as a strength or a weakness in their particular school. Their ratings of strengths are summarized in Table 3.8.

In the public school sample, the teachers saw the greatest strengths of the English program as being the freedom to develop their own style and approach (rated as a strength by 94 percent), the preparation of the faculty (88 percent), the support of the department chair (82 percent), the program in literature (81 percent), the program for the college bound (77 percent), and the departmental curriculum in English (74 percent).

The teachers in the other samples tended in general to rate all aspects of their programs more highly than did the public school teachers, but a quite similar profile of strengths emerged across samples. The differences that do emerge between samples are interesting. The teachers in the random sample of public schools had the least faith in the intelligence of their students;

Table 3.7

Literature-Related Extracurricular Activities, by Sample
(Department Chair Reports)

	Percent of Schools					
	Public Schools (n=198)	Achievement Award Schools (n=66)	Centers of Excellence (n=52)	Catholic Schools (n=53)	Independent Schools (n=48)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Journalism	70.2	90.9	80.0	88.7	83.3	18.27***
Drama	69.7	74.2	78.8	81.1	70.8	3.95
Literary magazine	48.5	89.4	86.5	62.3	60.4	50.03***
Debate club	22.2	54.5	61.5	30.2	27.1	43.71***
Creative writing club	16.2	31.8	30.8	15.1	27.1	12.29*
Great Books program	10.6	7.6	5.8	5.7	6.3	2.59
Film club	6.6	6.1	7.7	1.9	14.6	6.59
Book club	6.1	3.0	7.7	3.8	4.2	1.88
Other	14.6	25.8	15.4	15.1	18.8	4.70
Total activities (out of 8) Mean	2.5	3.6	3.6	2.9	2.9	F(4;412) 11.67***
(SD)	(1.4)	(1.3)	(1.3)	(1.2)	(1.5)	

* p< .05
** p> .01
*** p< .001

Table 3.8

Strengths in the English Program as Perceived by Teachers
(Teacher Reports, Form C)

	Percent of Teachers Reporting [a]					
	Public Schools (n=171)	Achievement Award Schools (n=61)	Centers of Excellence (n=54)	Catholic Schools (n=46)	Independent Schools (n=38)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Freedom to develop own style and approach	94.2	93.4	98.1	95.7	97.4	2.23
Preparation of the faculty	88.0	91.8	94.4	97.8	97.4	7.35
Support of department chair	82.2	88.1	81.1	91.3	92.1	5.06
Literature program	80.6	88.5	96.3	95.6	81.6	13.35**
Programs for college bound students	77.2	96.7	88.5	93.5	84.2	17.44**
Departmental curriculum	74.3	93.3	90.6	91.1	84.2	17.92**
Support of principal	69.6	65.6	66.7	60.9	78.9	3.57
Writing program	67.8	86.9	94.4	78.3	68.4	21.73***
Availability of resources and materials	58.1	77.0	83.3	55.6	60.5	17.49**
Staff development	55.0	52.4	71.1	65.9	71.1	8.84
Tracking	50.9	63.3	44.9	57.8	37.8	7.71
Programs for nonacademic students	45.7	38.3	52.0	40.9	22.2	9.05
Teaching load	41.9	50.0	57.4	44.4	52.6	4.99
Intelligence of the students	41.7	75.0	62.7	60.9	63.2	24.64***
Community support	36.8	55.0	70.4	43.5	62.2	23.88***
						F-Statistic (df=4;368)
Total strengths (out of 15) Mean	9.4	11.1	11.3	10.6	10.5	6.24***
SD	3.6	2.7	2.8	2.3	3.0	

[a] Ratings of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (a weakness) to 5 (a strength).

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

only 42 percent of them rated the intelligence of their students as a strength, compared with 61 to 75 percent of the teachers in the other four samples. The public school teachers were also least likely to rate community support for their programs as a strength (37 percent). Independent schools (62 percent) and Centers of Excellence (70 percent) were most likely to view community support as a particular strength. Teachers in both samples of award-winning schools were also more likely to rate the availablility of resources and materials as a strength, to praise their programs for college bound students, and to praise their programs in writing and literature.

Table 3.9 summarizes the weaknesses noted by these same teachers. In the random sample of public schools, the most frequent weaknesses reported by the teachers included teaching load (rated as a weakness by 36 percent), community support (31 percent), programs for nonacademic students (27 percent), and availability of resources and materials (23 percent). Teachers in the other samples of schools reported fewer weaknesses, but teaching load and programs for nonacademic students led the lists of weaknesses they did report.

Summary

The data discussed in this section show that in general teachers of English are experienced and well-prepared. On average, teachers in the random sample of public schools reported over 14 years of teaching experience, and 95 percent reported an academic concentration in English or a related field. Some 61 percent had a masters degree.

Reports of teaching conditions show some improvement over the past 30 years, though only 28 percent of public school teachers reported loads that reflect the NCTE-recommended maximum of 100 students per day.

The three greatest strengths that teachers noted in the English programs in their schools reflect their professionalism and competence: they valued the freedom to develop their own style and approach, the overall preparation of the faculty, and the support of the department chair. The program in literature and the program for the college bound were also highly rated.

Teaching load led the list of weaknesses cited by the public school teachers; it was considered a weakness by 36 percent of those responding. The degree of community support and programs for nonacademic students came next among the weaknesses the teachers noted.

Reports from the two samples of award-winning schools indicated a number of consistent differences between them and the random sample of public schools. Compared with the random sample, the award-winning schools were disproportionately suburban, had more resources available to support the program in literature, hired teachers with more experience and more graduate preparation for teaching, kept teaching loads lighter, and offered more special programs and extracurricular activities related to the teaching of English. They also tended to be more content with the quality of their students and the level of community support for the program in English.

Teaching conditions in Catholic schools were similar to those in public schools, though overall school size was considerably smaller. Loads in the independent schools were by far the

Table 3.9

Weaknesses in the English Program as Perceived by Teachers [a]
(Teacher Reports, Form C)

	Percent of Teachers Reporting					
	Public Schools (n=171)	Achievement Award Schools (n=61)	Centers of Excellence (n=54)	Catholic Schools (n=46)	Independent Schools (n=38)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Teaching load	36.0	30.0	29.6	24.4	26.3	3.29
Community support	31.0	10.0	9.3	2.2	8.1	34.45***
Programs for nonacademic students	27.2	30.0	20.0	36.4	36.1	4.32
Availability of resources and materials	22.7	8.2	3.7	8.9	15.8	16.77**
Tracking	19.3	13.3	8.2	13.3	24.3	5.77
Staff development	18.1	16.4	5.7	15.9	13.2	5.07
Intelligence of the students	14.9	0.0	3.9	0.0	7.9	20.53***
Writing program	11.7	3.3	3.7	4.3	15.8	9.44*
Support of principal	11.1	9.8	9.3	19.6	5.3	4.94
Programs for college bound students	10.2	1.6	0.0	4.3	13.2	12.11*
Departmental curriculum	8.2	0.0	1.9	0.0	10.5	12.27*
Support of department chair	5.9	1.7	3.8	0.0	0.0	6.44
Literature program	5.3	0.0	1.9	0.0	10.5	10.48*
Preparation of the faculty	4.8	4.9	3.7	2.2	0.0	2.44
Freedom to develop own style and approach	2.3	1.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.18

[a] Ratings of 1 or 2 on a scale from 1 (a weakness) to 5 (a strength).

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

best, at least in terms of number of students: 70 percent of these teachers reported loads that met the NCTE-suggested maximum of 100 students per day. (NCTE has since changed this recommendation to 80 students per day.)

Literature in the English Curriculum

Literature has been the major focus in the teaching of English since English emerged as a major school subject at the end of the nineteenth century (Applebee, 1974). New demands on the English program have led to redefinitions of what students should learn from the literature they study, but the central place of literature itself has rarely been challenged.

Responses to the present survey suggest that this central place of literature has remained unchanged. Table 4.1 summarizes department chairs' responses to a question asking them to estimate the percent of time in English focusing primarily on literature in each of the high school grades (9 through 12). In the random sample of public schools, the department chairs reported literature instruction rising from an average of 47 percent of the time in Grade 9 to 59 percent by Grade 12. The chairs in the two samples of award-winning schools reported somewhat more time devoted to literature than did those in the random sample of public schools, particularly at the upper grades, while the chairs in the Catholic and independent schools reported the most (72 and 71 percent, respectively, by Grade 12).

The department chairs' reports were overall estimates, across classes and teachers at each grade. Teachers were also asked to estimate the percentage of time they generally allotted to various components of English in a specific class. Their reports, summarized in Table 4.2, are similar to those from the department chairs, indicating an average of 48 percent of time allocated to literature in the random sample of public schools. The time allocated to other components of English coursework included 27 percent to writing instruction, 15 percent to language (including grammar and usage), 7 percent to speech, and 3 percent to other topics. The degree of emphasis showed little variation across the various samples of schools. The only significant variation occurred for writing, which was emphasized somewhat more in the two samples of award-winning schools and somewhat less in the Catholic school sample.

We can get some sense of changes over time from Squire and Applebee's study (1968) of excellent programs. Basing their figures on classroom observations rather than teacher or department chair report, they found that literature instruction took 52 percent of class time, writing 16 percent, and language 14 percent. These figures suggest that the amount of time devoted to literature has remained very stable since the early 1960s, but that writing instruction has gained in importance at the expense of a variety of less central activities.

Emphasis on the various components of English also varied with level and track (Table 4.3). The proportion of time allocated to literature rose from 37 percent in the junior high/middle school classes to 52 percent in Grades 11 and 12. This was accompanied by a drop in attention to language (grammar and usage) from 24 percent in the junior high/middle school classes to 12 percent by Grades 11 and 12. Writing remained constant, at 25 to 29 percent across the grades on which teachers reported. When the data are examined by track, literature received less emphasis in the nonacademic (41 percent) and mixed classes (44 percent), and most emphasis in college preparatory tracks (55 percent). Conversely, language study received more emphasis in the nonacademic (20 percent) and mixed classes (18 percent), and least in college

Table 4.1

Percent of Time in English Focusing Primarily on Literature, Grades 9-12
(Department Chair Reports)

	Mean Percent of Time (SD)					
	Public Schools (n=169)	Achievement Award Schools (n=62)	Centers of Excellence (n=44)	Catholic Schools (n=51)	Independent Schools (n=49)	F-Statistics (df=5;365)
Grade 9	47.2 (15.4)	52.2 (12.9)	53.0 (15.5)	46.6 (15.5)	46.7 (13.4)	2.59*
Grade 10	46.9 (14.3)	53.9 (14.6)	55.7 (14.7)	57.5 (15.7)	56.9 (15.4)	4.61***
Grade 11	57.6 (14.8)	63.2 (16.6)	61.5 (15.3)	65.3 (17.1)	64.3 (17.6)	3.66**
Grade 12	58.8 (16.5)	62.9 (19.0)	62.7 (19.6)	72.3 (19.5)	71.2 (20.0)	7.78***
Average	52.6	58.1	58.2	60.4	59.8	

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 4.2

Percentage of Time Allocated to Different Components of English in a Specified Class: Grades 9-12, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

	Average Percent of Time						
	Public Schools (n=118)	Achievement Award Schools (n=54)	Centers of Excellence (n=39)	Catholic Schools (n=41)	Independent Schools (n=34)	Within-Group SD	F-Statistic (df=4;281)
Literature	48.3	53.0	49.9	55.4	56.0	17.5	2.25
Writing	26.8	31.9	28.2	23.1	26.8	12.2	3.27**
Language	15.4	10.6	10.7	15.7	13.4	12.9	2.02
Speech	6.9	4.7	8.7	6.5	3.5	8.7	2.17
Other	3.2	7.7	4.7	5.0	4.3	14.3	0.94

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 4.3

Percentage of Time Allocated to Different Components of English in a Specified Class, by Level and Track
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

Average Percent of Time: Public Schools by Level

	Junior High/ Middle School (n=46)	Grades 9-10 (n=58)	Grades 11-12 (n=60)	(Within-Group SD)	F-Statistic (df=2;161)
Literature	37.0	44.6	51.9	(15.8)	11.71***
Writing	27.7	25.1	28.5	(11.3)	1.43
Language	23.6	18.8	12.1	(13.2)	10.33***
Speech	6.4	7.4	6.4	(7.7)	0.33
Other	6.2	3.5	2.8	(10.1)	1.52

Average Percent of Time: Grades 9-12 by Track

	Nonacademic (n=17)	Mixed (n=74)	College Preparatory (n=193)	Within-Group SD	F-Statistic (df=2;281)
Literature	41.4	43.5	55.1	16.7	16.08***
Writing	30.2	26.3	27.7	12.4	0.77
Language	20.2	18.2	11.4	12.6	10.33***
Speech	5.9	7.8	5.8	8.8	1.48
Other	8.2	3.9	4.6	14.4	0.63

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

preparatory classes (11 percent). Again, the time allocated to writing remained relatively constant across tracks.

It is, of course, somewhat artificial to separate the various elements of English coursework and treat them as independent. Speech, writing, language, and literature activities are often interrelated, building upon and reinforcing one another. From this perspective, even the roughly 50 percent of time devoted to literature may underestimate its importance in the English curriculum. Thus we asked another group of teachers to estimate the amount of time that students had spent on literature-related activities in class and for homework during the previous five school days; they were also asked how many pages of literature-related reading students do each week. Responses to these questions are summarized in Table 4.4.

In the public school sample, high school teachers reported an average of 78 percent of class time during the past five days had been spent on literature-related activities, and 52 percent of homework time. In all, on average, students were expected to do 42 pages of literature-related reading a week. All three figures were somewhat higher in the two samples of award-winning schools and in the Catholic schools. Teachers in these three samples reported requiring half again as much literature-related reading each week (from 61 to 67 pages, compared with 42 in the random sample of public schools).

Like the results reported earlier, these estimates also varied with grade level and track (Table 4.5). College preparatory students were required to read nearly two and a half times as many pages each week as were nonacademic track students (65 versus 23), while the amount of reading required rose from 30 pages in the junior high/middle school classes to 51 pages by Grades 11 and 12.

Goals for the Study of Literature

Literature, then, clearly remains at the center of the English curriculum, even after two decades of emphasis on the teaching of writing. Given this central role for literature, what do teachers hope to accomplish through their literature instruction? To explore this, teachers in the present survey were asked to rate the importance of each of 11 goals for literary study with a specified class, on a scale from 1 (unimportant) to 5 (important). The goals were derived from our earlier study of programs with reputations for excellence (Applebee, 1989b), in which teachers were asked open-ended questions about their goals for literature instruction.

The goals included in the questionnaire were roughly split between reader-based and text-based orientations toward literature instruction, two orientations that the professional literature suggests are to some extent in opposition. To examine the relationships among these goals in the present sample, a factor analysis was carried out on the teachers' responses.

The results of the factor analysis are summarized in Table 4.6. The analysis yielded two well-defined factors that together account for 52 percent of the original variance. The first factor, defined by such goals as "reflect upon and understand their own responses," "develop respect for diverse opinions," and "understand relationships of literature to life," represents a student-centered orientation toward literature instruction. The second factor, defined by such goals as "develop informed taste in literature," "gain familiarity with literary terms," and "learn

Table 4.4

Attention to Literature in a Specified Class: Grades 9-12, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Public Schools (n=120)	Achievement Award Schools (n=61)	Centers of Excellence (n=44)	Catholic Schools (n=42)	Independent Schools (n=30)	Within-Group SD	F-Statistic (df=4;292)
Percent of time on literature-related activities during past five days:							
Lesson time	78.3	83.9	85.5	83.5	71.2	(23.6)	2.38*
Homework time	52.3	66.8	69.7	65.3	65.9	(38.2)	2.57*
Average number of pages of literature-related reading students do per week	41.9	67.0	62.4	61.2	46.8	(46.8)	4.45**

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 4.5

Attention to Literature in a Specified Class, by Level and Track
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

Public Schools, by Level

	Junior High/ Middle School (n=42)	Grades 9-10 (n=58)	Grades 11-12 (n=62)	(Within-Group SD)	F-Statistic (df=2;159)
Percent of time on literature-related activities during past five days:					
Lesson time	68.8	70.7	85.4	(27.2)	6.29**
Homework time	33.0	46.7	59.6	(39.8)	5.46**
Average number of pages of literature-related reading students do per week	30.0	32.1	51.1	(35.3)	5.91**

Grades 9-12, by Track

	Nonacademic (n=33)	Mixed (n=75)	College Preparatory (n=189)	Within-Group SD	F-Statistic (df=2;159)
Percent of time on literature-related activities during past five days:					
Lesson time	72.5	77.7	83.0	(23.7)	3.47*
Homework time	51.9	57.7	63.8	(38.6)	1.61
Average number of pages of literature-related reading students do per week	23.0	46.0	65.4	(45.8)	14.40***

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 4.6

Factor Analysis of Teachers' Goals for the Study of Literature in a Specified Class
(Teacher Reports, Form C)

	Factor 1 Student-Oriented	Factor 2 Text-Oriented
Pleasure in reading	.59	.13
Understanding relationships of literature to life	.69	.21
Gain cultural literacy	.27	.60
Gain familiarity with literary terms	.07	.72
Reflect upon and understand own responses	.73	.18
Understand author's purpose	.28	.63
Learn to think critically	.66	.42
Develop respect for diverse opinions	.71	.22
Learn to analyze individual texts	.24	.66
Gain insight into human experience	.69	.31
Develop informed taste in literature	.29	.75

n=373

Principal components analysis with rotation of vectors with eigenvalues greater than 1 to the Varimax criterion. The two factors account for 52.1% of the original variance.

to analyze individual texts," represents a text-centered orientation.

Rather than the expected dichotomy between student-centered and text-centered orientations (which would have produced a single factor in which the two orientations were opposed to one another), the results suggest that in practice teachers treat these goals as independent of one another. In fact, some 96 percent of the teachers gave overall positive ratings to both sets of goals.[1]

Table 4.7 summarizes teachers' ratings of the various goals, separately for each of the samples of schools. Clearly, all of the goals are considered quite important by the teachers in this study. In the public school sample, even the lowest rated goal ("learn to analyze individual texts") was rated as important by over two-thirds of the teachers. Given this overall pattern of response, the student-oriented goals were still rated as somewhat more important than were the text-oriented goals. In fact, if the goals are rank ordered, the six student-oriented goals all rank higher than any of the text-oriented goals. (Learning to think critically, which loaded to some extent on both orientations, ranked second overall.)

Differences among the various samples of schools were slight. Student-oriented goals ranked higher than text-oriented goals in all of the samples. Teachers in the two samples of award-winning schools tended to rate all of the goals somewhat more highly than did teachers in the random sample of public schools, with teachers in the Catholic and independent school samples falling in between. The one goal on which there was a significant difference among samples was "learning to analyze individual texts." This was rated as important by only 67 percent of the teachers in the random sample of public schools, but by 83 percent or more of the teachers in each of the other samples.

Teachers' goals for the study of literature showed little difference by grade level, but there were some noticeable differences among tracks. The relevant data are summarized in Table 4.8. Overall, the teachers had fewer text-oriented and fewer student-oriented goals for students in nonacademic tracks.[2] The differences were greatest for developing informed taste (33 percent rating this as important for nonacademic students, versus 87 percent for college preparatory students), and learning to analyze individual texts (37 percent versus 87 percent), but the direction of difference was the same for all 11 goals. Goals for heterogeneously grouped classes tended to fall in between, though in most cases they were closer to those for college preparatory than for nonacademic tracks.

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1. This figure was derived by calculating each teacher's average rating on all text-oriented and student-oriented goals: 96 percent had an average rating of 3 or more (on items rated on a 5 point scale) for both sets of goals; 1 percent were negative about both sets of goals; 3 percent were positive only about student-oriented goals; and less than 1 percent were positive only about text-oriented goals.

2. This raises the question of what goals they did have for noncollege bound students. Results on other aspects of their teaching, particularly those in chapters 6 and 7, suggest that instruction for noncollege bound students was skills-oriented rather than literary.

Table 4.7

Teachers' Goals for the Study of Literature in a Specified Class, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form C)

	Percent Rating as "Important" [a]					
	Public Schools (n=173)	Achievement Award Schools (n=60)	Centers of Excellence (n=54)	Catholic Schools (n=46)	Independent Schools (n=36)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Student-Oriented						
Pleasure in reading	85.0	96.7	88.9	84.8	94.7	8.08
Understand relationships of literature and life	92.5	100.0	90.7	95.7	100.0	8.77
Reflect upon and understand own responses	91.9	100.0	94.4	88.9	89.5	6.78
Develop respect for diverse opinions	90.8	96.7	94.4	91.1	89.5	3.00
Gain insight into human experience	95.4	100.0	96.3	95.7	100.0	4.56
Learn to think critically	93.6	98.3	98.1	95.7	94.7	3.38
Text-Oriented						
Gain cultural literacy	84.4	86.7	83.3	80.0	73.0	3.72
Gain familiarity with literature	79.3	85.0	72.2	87.0	65.8	8.48
Understand author's purpose	82.7	93.3	92.6	89.1	89.5	7.01
Learn to analyze individual texts	67.4	86.7	87.0	82.6	84.2	17.06**
Develop informed taste in literature	76.3	85.0	77.8	82.6	84.2	3.09

	Average Rating					(Pooled SD)	F-Statistics (df=4;361)
Student-Oriented	4.5	4.7	4.6	4.5	4.5	(.46)	3.72**
Text-Oriented	4.1	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.1	(.60)	3.36**
Variety of Goals (Total out of 11[a])	9.3	10.1	9.8	9.7	9.6	(1.90)	1.85

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

[a] Rating of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (unimportant) to 5 (important).

Table 4.8

Teachers' Goals for the Study of Literature in a Specified Class, by Track
(Teacher Reports, Form C)

	Percent Rating as "Important" [a]			
	Nonacademic (n=27)	Mixed (n=108)	College Preparatory (n=231)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Student-Oriented				
Pleasure in reading	76.9	88.0	90.5	4.45
Understanding relationship of literature to life	81.5	93.5	97.0	12.37**
Reflect upon and understand own responses	85.2	89.8	96.1	7.86*
Develop respect for diverse opinions	74.1	90.7	95.2	15.80***
Gain insight into human experience	92.6	95.4	97.8	2.98
Learn to think critically	77.8	94.4	98.3	24.79***
Text-Oriented				
Gain cultural literacy	65.4	83.3	84.8	6.23*
Gain familiarity with literature	70.4	73.1	81.9	4.47
Understand author's purpose	66.7	88.9	89.6	12.00**
Learn to analyze individual texts	37.0	63.9	87.4	48.41***
Develop informed taste in literature	33.3	74.1	87.4	46.22***

	Average Rating			(Within group SD)	F-Statistic
Student-oriented	4.2	4.5	4.6	(0.45)	8.21***
Text-oriented	3.5	4.0	4.4	(0.56)	34.11***
Variety in goals (total out of 11 [a])	7.6	9.4	10.0	(1.85)	21.94***

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

[a] Rating of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (unimportant) to 5 (important).

Organizing the Curriculum

Given goals which are both text- and student-oriented, how do teachers organize the literature curriculum? Department chairs were asked to list the emphases at each grade, 7 through 12. The responses for each sample are summarized in Table 4.9.

The results indicate considerable uniformity in the ways literature instruction is organized. The most typical course of study in all five samples is organized around genres in Grades 7 through 10, American literature in Grade 11, and British literature in Grade 12. In Grades 7 through 9, the only variation on that most typical pattern is an attempt by some schools to emphasize an "overview of literature" in Grades 7 and 8 (particularly in the public school and Achievement Awards samples).

In the upper grades, some variations are evident from the typical pattern, particularly as schools try to accommodate a course in world literature. Of increasing importance as schools seek to reflect a broader literary heritage, world literature is offered in some schools at Grade 10 and in others at Grade 12. When it is offered at Grade 10, the traditional sequence of American and British literature at Grades 11 and 12 remains undisturbed (Table 4.10). When it is offered at Grade 12, it either replaces all or part of the British literature course (the most typical pattern in the public schools experimenting with world literature at this level), or it moves them back so that American literature is offered in Grade 10 and British literature in Grade 11 (the most typical pattern in the Catholic schools experimenting with a 12th grade world literature course). Other sequences of emphases in Grades 10 through 12 result primarily from offerings of elective courses, or from a two-year American literature course offered in some schools.

Elective Courses

The results summarized in Table 4.9 also indicate a smattering of attention to elective courses. Popular during the 1970s as a way to individualize and invigorate the English curriculum (Hillocks, 1972), elective programs have largely disappeared from most schools. Department chairs were asked directly about the availability of alternative elective courses at each grade level. Their responses are summarized in Table 4.11.

Through Grade 9, fewer than 10 percent of the schools report offering elective courses. The numbers rise a bit in Grade 10 (19 percent), and become substantial by Grades 11 and 12 (43 and 56 percent, respectively). Rather than the extensive elective curricula of the past, however, in most cases these results reflect a limited number of choices at the upper level of the curriculum, where such subjects as drama or journalism may be offered as options to the regular English course, or where students may choose among British, American, and World literature-- or even, in some schools, whether to take a fourth year of English at all.[1] Within this overall pattern, Catholic and independent schools reported even less interest in electives at the lower grades, and Centers of Excellence reported somewhat more, particularly at Grade 10.

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1. Only 37 states required four years of English for high school graduation in the 1989-90 academic year (Coley & Goertz, 1990).

Table 4.9

Most Frequent Emphases in the Literature Curriculum, by Grade and Sample
(Department Chair Reports)

	Emphases Reported by 20% or More of the Schools[a]				
	Public Schools	Achievement Award Schools	Centers of Excellence	Catholic Schools	Independent Schools
Grade 7	Genre study Overview	Genre study Overview	Genre study	--- ---	Genre study
Grade 8	Genre study Overview	Genre study Overview	Genre study	--- ---	Genre study
Grade 9	Genre study	Genre study	Genre study	Genre study	Genre study
Grade 10	Genre study World literature	Genre study American literature	Genre study World literature American literature	Genre study American literature	Genre study American literature
Grade 11	American literature	American literature	American literature Electives	American literature British literature	American literature
Grade 12	British literature World literature	British literature World literature	British literature World literature Electives	British literature World literature	British literature Electives

[a] Listed in descending order of frequency

Table 4.10

Curriculum Sequence, Grades 10, 11, and 12
(Department Chair Reports)

	Percent of Schools				
	Public Schools n=165	Achievement Award Schools n=62	Centers of Excellence n=46	Catholic Schools n=52	Independent Schools n=50
Sequence					
Genre; American; British	49.7	51.6	32.6	36.5	42.0
World; American; British	15.2	9.7	15.2	11.5	6.0
Genre; American; British & World	7.3	11.3	2.2	13.5	4.0
American; British; World	2.4	6.5	2.2	26.9	2.0
Other	25.5	21.0	47.8	11.5	46.0

Chi-Square(16)=72.88***

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 4.11

Percent of Schools Offering Alternative Elective Courses, by Grade and Sample
(Department Chair Reports)

	Public Schools (n=164)	Achievement Award Schools (n=62)	Centers of Excellence (n=48)	Catholic Schools (n=51)	Independent Schools (n=48)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Grade 7	2.4	0.0	2.4	-	0.0	2.43
Grade 8	2.4	0.0	4.8	-	0.0	3.98
Grade 9	9.4	0.0	10.9	3.9	2.1	10.41*
Grade 10	18.9	14.5	27.1	9.8	4.2	11.92*
Grade 11	43.3	46.8	53.2	37.3	29.2	6.77
Grade 12	56.2	69.4	59.6	60.8	54.2	3.82

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Organizing Classroom Study

Whatever overall organizing framework is chosen for the curriculum, teachers have a variety of ways in which they organize their particular courses. They may emphasize genres or themes within a chronological course, focus on individual major works, decide to emphasize the literature of specific groups, or structure their curriculum around special approaches such as guided individual reading.

To examine this aspect of curriculum organization, we asked teachers to rate the importance of six specific organizational strategies that had emerged in our previous studies (Applebee, 1989b). They rated the six approaches on a scale from 1 (minor importance) to 5 (major importance), in the context of the curriculum used with a particular class. The results are summarized in Table 4.12.

Overall, the single most highly rated approach to organizing the curriculum was the study of individual major works (rated as important by 78 percent of the teachers in the random sample of public schools). Whatever other framework may be placed around it -- of genre, themes, chronology, or special group -- the individual major work remains central to the ways teachers think about and organize instruction in their classes. Second in importance was the study of genres or types (72 percent), followed at some distance by thematic units (48 percent), chronology (48 percent), and the study of literature representing specific groups (43 percent). The least important technique was guided individual reading (38 percent), despite its popularity among professional leaders (e.g., Squire & Applebee, 1968; Atwell, 1987).

A few variations from this general pattern occurred in the other samples. Teachers in the two samples of award-winning schools tended to rate the study of individual major works even more highly than did their peers in the random sample of public schools. Teachers in the independent schools, in contrast, ranked thematic units more highly than any other approach (63 percent) and were somewhat less interested in the study of individual major works. (These were still rated as important by 59 percent, however.) The independent school teachers also had the least interest in guided individual reading (15 percent) and in the study of literature representing specific groups as approaches to organizing the curriculum.

Responses to these items showed only a few variations with level or track (Table 4.13). The only major shift with grade level occurs for chronological study, which is central in American and British literature courses in Grades 11 and 12 and relatively unimportant earlier. Genre study, however, even though it provides the overall organizing framework in the early grades and not in the later, is rated equally important across all of the grades. Guided individual reading shows a trend toward more emphasis in junior high/middle school classes (59 percent, versus 39 percent in Grades 11 and 12), but the differences are not significant in the present sample. The only significant difference in organizational approaches by track occurred for the study of individual major works. This was rated as important for 68 percent of the nonacademic classes, and for 83 percent of the college preparatory classes. Again, there was a tendency for guided individual reading to be rated more highly in nonacademic classes, and chronological study in college preparatory tracks, but neither set of differences was statistically significant.

Table 4.12

Approaches to Organizing the Curriculum for a Specified Class: Grades 9-12, by Sample
(Teachers Reports, Form A)

	Percent Rating as Important [a]					
	Public Schools (n=109)	Achievement Award Schools (n=58)	Centers of Excellence (n=41)	Catholic Schools (n=38)	Independent Schools (n=29)	Chi Square (df=4)
Study of individual major works	77.9	83.6	93.0	78.6	55.2	15.98**
Study of genres or types	71.9	64.3	50.0	66.7	58.6	7.14
Thematic units	48.1	51.8	47.6	43.6	63.0	2.76
Chronological study	47.7	51.7	34.1	42.1	24.1	8.30
Study of literature representing specific groups	42.6	44.4	43.2	36.8	25.9	3.24
Guided individual reading	38.3	43.6	30.0	25.0	15.4	8.75

[a] Ratings of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (minor importance) to 5 (major importance).

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 4.13

Approaches to Organizing the Curriculum for a Specified Class, by Level and Track
(Teachers Reports, Form A)

	Percent Rating as Important [a] Public Schools, by Level			
	Junior High/ Middle School (n=33)	Grades 9-10 (n=54)	Grades 11-12 (n=52)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Study of individual major works	65.7	72.7	82.8	3.62
Study of genres or types	71.4	75.0	69.0	0.52
Thematic units	54.5	48.1	48.1	0.42
Chronological study	13.3	14.6	73.8	50.67***
Study of literature representing specific groups	35.5	38.8	46.2	1.06
Guided individual reading	59.4	38.2	38.5	4.45

	Grades 9-12, by Track			
	Nonacademic (n=31)	Mixed (n=67)	College Preparatory (n=170)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Study of individual major works	67.7	72.9	83.4	6.20*
Study of genres or types	61.3	67.6	64.6	0.41
Thematic units	45.5	55.2	48.2	1.20
Chronological study	27.6	41.4	46.6	3.79
Study of literature representing specific groups	32.1	42.2	41.2	0.92
Guided individual reading	48.5	31.3	32.3	3.50

[a] Ratings of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (minor importance) to 5 (major importance).

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Maintaining the Curriculum

The curriculum as it emerges in most classrooms is the result of the interaction of a variety of different influences, including the course of study, traditions within the school and department, and each teacher's individual background and interests. To examine differences in the ways these factors might interact in different settings, department chairs were asked to rate the importance of several factors in determining the literature curriculum in their schools. The results are summarized in Table 4.14.

Overall, the single most important influence in all of the samples is the departmental course of study, followed closely in the random sample of public schools by the state or district course of study, informal departmental consensus, and the individual teacher. The two samples of award-winning schools looked similar, though they put somewhat less weight on the state or district course of study. Catholic and independent schools (as would be expected) felt the least influence of a state or district course of study, and placed correspondingly more emphasis on their own course of study, on informal departmental consensus, and on the individual teacher.

Given the importance of the departmental course of study, it is interesting to note how often it is revised. Department chairs' reports are summarized in Table 4.15. In general, the formal curriculum is revised regularly in all of the samples, averaging just over every two years in the public school sample, and nearly every year in the Catholic and independent schools. The curriculum in literature and that in writing seem to be revised on roughly the same schedule.

The Department Chair

The primary responsibility for insuring that the curriculum is kept up-to-date, as well as for organizing and supervising all other departmental activities, usually devolves upon a department chair, who may or may not be given additional support (e.g., released time, clerical support, or extra salary) to carry out these duties. Table 4.16 summarizes department chairs' reports on the support that they receive in the various samples of schools.

The amount of support that department chairs received for their work varied among the samples in the present study. The independent school department chairs were least likely to receive support (32 percent receiving none at all), followed closely by those in the random sample of public schools (27 percent receiving no support). In the two samples of award-winning schools on the other hand, 88-94 percent received support of one kind or another. The Catholic sample fell in between, with 81 percent of the department chairs receiving at least some support. When support is provided, it is most likely to involve released time or a salary increment; clerical help is rare in any of the samples, even though much of a department chair's work is likely to have a large clerical component (e.g., completing orders and requisitions, scheduling classes).

The amount of work involved in chairing a department is tied directly to the size of the school, and so in turn is the amount of support provided (Table 4.17). In schools with fewer

Table 4.14

Major Influences in Determining the Curriculum in Literature
(Department Chair Reports)

Percent of Reports [a]

	Public Schools (n=200)	Achievement Award Schools (n=66)	Centers of Excellence (n=50)	Catholic Schools (n=52)	Independent Schools (n=51)	Chi-Square (df=4)
State or district course of study	62.0	51.6	48.9	18.4	17.4	50.47***
Departmental course of study	69.7	78.8	90.0	88.7	79.6	15.05**
Informal departmental consensus	50.5	50.0	72.0	80.8	78.4	29.64***
Each individual teacher	51.3	48.5	60.0	63.5	67.3	7.28

[a] Ratings of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (minor) to 5 (major).

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 4.15

Years Since Last Update of Formal Curriculum
(Department Chair Reports)

	Public Schools (n=163)	Achievement Award Schools (n=56)	Centers of Excellence (n=46)	Catholic Schools (n=45)	Independent Schools (n=39)	F-Statistic (df=4;344)
Curriculum in literature						
Mean	2.3	2.7	2.2	1.2	1.2	3.47**
(SD)	(3.0)	(3.3)	(2.4)	(1.4)	(1.5)	
Curriculum in writing						
Mean	2.3	2.5	1.7	1.1	1.5	2.80*
(SD)	(2.8)	(2.4)	(1.8)	(1.3)	(2.0)	

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 4.16

Support Provided to Department Chair for Coordinating Departmental Activities
(Department Chair Reports)

	Percent of Schools					
	Public Schools (n=198)	Achievement Award Schools (n=65)	Centers of Excellence (n=51)	Catholic Schools (n=53)	Independent Schools (n=47)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Released time	60.6	66.2	78.4	81.1	68.1	11.53*
Salary increments	34.7	60.0	58.8	22.6	6.4	49.29***
Clerical help	8.6	9.2	11.8	1.9	10.6	4.02
Other support	3.5	6.2	2.0	1.9	8.5	4.45
None at all	27.0	6.2	11.8	18.9	31.9	18.82***

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 4.17

Support Provided to Department Chair, by School Size
(Public School Sample)

	Percent of Schools			
	Under 500 (n=30)	500-1499 (n=104)	1500+ (n=33)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Released time	33.3	63.5	81.8	16.00***
Salary increment	13.3	34.3	54.5	11.81**
Clerical help	10.0	6.7	6.1	0.45
Other support	3.2	3.8	3.0	0.06
None at all	54.8	22.9	9.1	18.83***

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

than 500 students, 55 percent reported receiving no support as department chair; in schools of 1500 or over, only 9 percent received no support. Even in large schools, however, clerical support was almost non-existent (reported by only 6 percent).

Projected Changes in the Literature Curriculum

As a prelude to a question about specific changes that might take place, department chairs were asked if they expected any changes in content and approaches to the teaching of literature in their department in the next few years. Since change and innovation are generally considered positive attributes in American schools, we expected this question to yield an almost universal "yes."

We were wrong. As the data in Table 4.18 indicate, only about 40 percent of the department chairs in the public school sample expected any changes at all in content or approaches to the teaching of literature in the next few years; the majority expected none. And these figures were virtually identical across the other samples.

The figures did vary, however, by type of community and by the composition of the student body (Table 4.19). In suburban schools fully 71 percent of the department chairs reported expecting changes in the literature curriculum in the next few years, and so did approximately 50 percent of the chairs of departments with 10 percent or more minority students. These responses may reflect the traditional leading role that suburban schools have played in educational reform, as well as the recent widespread emphasis on improving the educational attainments of minority students through changes in teaching methods and materials.

Summary

Results in this section suggest that literature has maintained its central place in the English curriculum, in spite of recent reforms focusing on the teaching of writing. Approximately 50 percent of class time is devoted to literature in high school English classes; when the interrelated nature of the English language arts is taken into account, as much as 78 percent of class time may be devoted to literature-related activities. The emphasis on literature is highest in the upper grades and college preparatory tracks, and lowest in middle-school and noncollege classes.

Teachers emphasize a broad range of text- and student-centered goals for their teaching of literature, and do not see these emphases as being in conflict with one another. Their expectations are highest for their college bound students; for the noncollege bound, they place less emphasis on both student-oriented and text-oriented outcomes.

The curriculum as a whole tends to be organized around genres in Grades 7 through 10, American literature in Grade 11, and British literature in Grade 12. Attempts to add courses in world literature introduce some variation into this pattern, particularly at the 10th and 12th grade levels. Within these broad organizational patterns, the most highly rated approach to organizing the curriculum was the study of individual major works (rated highly by 78 percent), followed closely by study of genres or types (72 percent). The most highly rated approaches to

Table 4.18

Percent of Department Chairs Who Expect Changes in Their Department in Content and Approaches in the Teaching of Literature in the Next Few Years, by Sample

	Public Schools (n=194)	Achievement Award Schools (n=64)	Centers of Excellence (n=49)	Catholic Schools (n=51)	Independent Schools (n=49)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Expect changes	39.7	42.2	40.8	43.1	44.9	0.56

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 4.19

Relationships among Changes Expected, Type of Community, and Proportion of Minority Students: Public Schools (Department Chair Reports)

		Changes Expected In Next Few Years (% of Departments)
Type of Community Served		
Urban	(n=27)	37.0
Suburban	(n=49)	70.8
Small town	(n=30)	29.4
Rural	(n=51)	26.5
Mixed	(n=25)	26.9
		Chi-Square(3)=26.21***
Percent of Minority Students		
Less than 10%	(n=102)	28.4
10-24%	(n=32)	58.1
25-49%	(n=38)	45.9
50% or more	(n=30)	54.8
		Chi-Square(3)=12.79**

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

literature study all involve techniques that work well with whole-class study. Guided individual reading received lower ratings than any other approach, though it was somewhat more popular in the junior high/ middle school grades than it was in the high school.

The most important influences on the organization of the curriculum take place at the departmental level, whether through a formal course of study or informal consensus. The majority of department chairs receive some compensation for organizing and supervising the work in English (usually released time or a salary increment). Those in the samples of award-winning schools were most likely to receive some form of support; those in the random sample of public schools were least likely to do so. Even in large schools, 9 percent of the department chairs reported receiving no support at all for their duties.

The curriculum in literature was very similar across the various samples studied here, and also seems very stable. The majority of department chairs expected that there would be no changes in content or approaches to the teaching of literature in their departments during the next few years.

5. The Texts Students Read

Since at least the 1960s there have been a variety of attempts to broaden the curriculum in literature. Some of these attempts have continued earlier emphases on including more accessible and appealing selections, often as part of an emphasis on "young adult" or "adolescent" literature. Others have reflected a concern with including more selections from alternative literary traditions, particularly selections by women and by minority authors, in order to better reflect the diversity of American culture. Still others have sought to include more contemporary literature, including more attention to film and other media.

During the 1980s, the seeming success of these movements generated its own backlash emphasizing the values of a traditional liberal education (Bennett, 1984). Spurred by calls for insuring that all students become "culturally literate" (Hirsch, 1987) and by reports that seem to indicate that they have not (Ravitch & Finn, 1987), this backlash has created a strong set of countervailing pressures to insure that students read and study the great books of the Western literary tradition.

In light of this controversy, this chapter will examine the materials that students read as part of the literature curriculum: the types of selections that are read, the traditions represented, the sources of materials, and the influences that shape teachers' choices.

Sources of Literary Materials

Teachers were asked to indicate sources of materials that they used regularly in teaching literature in a specified class. Their responses are summarized in Table 5.1.

In the random sample of public schools, the most frequent source of materials was the literature anthology (used regularly by 66 percent of the teachers), followed by class sets of book-length texts (52 percent) and dittoed or photocopied supplementary reading (44 percent). The biggest differences among the five samples of schools occurred for books students purchased, which were common in the independent and Catholic schools, and rare in the public school sample. There were also differences in the use of class sets of book-length texts. These were most common in the two samples of award-winning schools (where they were rated slightly more highly than anthologies), and least common in the Catholic and independent schools. In the samples of award-winning schools, the greater abundance of class sets of books may be attributable to the greater financial resources available.

The Literature Anthology

The commercial literature anthology, as it has evolved since the 1920s, is a massive text that usually includes at least one novel, one play, short stories, and poems, together with extensive background material and questions for discussion. Given the importance of these anthologies in many classrooms, a second group of teachers were asked to indicate the extent of their use of an anthology in a specified class, and to rate the anthology materials for their adequacy

Table 5.1

Sources of Literary Materials for Use with a Specified Class, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

	Percent Reporting "Regular" Use [a]					
	Public Schools (n=168)	Achievement Award Schools (n=56)	Centers of Excellence (n=51)	Catholic Schools (n=41)	Independent Schools (n=35)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Literature anthology	65.5	60.7	60.8	73.2	54.3	3.57
Class sets of book-length texts	51.6	70.4	63.8	41.7	48.4	10.54*
Dittoed or photocopied supplementary reading	43.6	62.1	59.2	42.9	47.1	8.58
Class sets of short stories	27.9	21.6	30.4	24.3	30.0	1.37
Class sets of plays	26.8	45.3	36.2	28.2	21.9	8.38
Books you purchase for student use	20.9	25.5	21.7	27.0	16.7	1.54
Class sets of poetry collections	16.3	18.9	25.5	24.3	31.0	4.77
Books students purchase	12.1	31.5	14.9	71.4	66.7	88.24***

[a] Ratings of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (never) to 5 (regularly).

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

as a source of selections and as a source of teaching activities. Their responses are summarized in Table 5.2.

In the random sample of public schools, 63 percent of the teachers reported that the literature anthology was their "main source of selections," and another 28 percent reported using it for supplementary reading. (This compares with the 66 percent of teachers who reported "regular use" of an anthology.) Catholic school teachers were somewhat more likely to report the anthology as their main source of selections, and teachers in the two award-winning samples and in the private school sample were somewhat less likely to do so.

Overall, teachers rated anthologies quite highly. In the random sample of public schools, 92 percent rated the anthologies at least adequate as a source of selections, and 88 percent similarly rated them as at least adequate as a source of teaching suggestions. There were some interesting variations in their ratings, however. Some 41 percent of the teachers in the random sample of public schools rated the anthology "excellent" as a source of selections, but only 28 percent gave similar ratings for the teaching suggestions that are included. Teaching suggestions were rated even less highly by teachers in the other samples of schools. The anthologized selections were rated most highly by teachers in Catholic and independent schools and least highly by teachers in the two samples of award-winning schools.

Levels of usage of the anthologies were relatively constant across grade levels, as were ratings of the selections. Teaching suggestions were somewhat more likely to be highly rated by junior high/middle school teachers (33 percent rating them as excellent), and were less likely to be rated highly by teachers in Grades 11 and 12 (14 percent rating them as excellent).

Types of Literature Studied

"Literature" is an ambiguous term in school contexts, sometimes being strongly value-laden and reserved for works that have passed a test of time, sometimes being simply a cover term for works of all levels of quality in diverse genres and media. For the purposes of the present study we have let literature be defined simply as whatever individual teachers and departments customarily think of as the substance of literature classes. This in turn leads to questions about what in fact students are customarily asked to read.

In one set of questions, we asked teachers to estimate what percent of literature-related class time was spent on a variety of different genres, including novels, plays, short stories, poems, nonfiction, film or video, and other types of literature. They were asked to respond on the basis of the past five days of instruction within a selected class. Their responses are summarized in Table 5.3.

In the random sample of public schools, book-length works (novels and plays) took up the greatest proportion of literature-related activities, together accounting for 51 percent of class time. Short stories came next (23 percent), followed by poetry (14 percent), nonfiction (6 percent), and media (5 percent). There were no significant variations in these emphases among the various samples of schools.

Emphases did vary by grade level and track, however. Junior high/middle school classes

Table 5.2

Use of Literature Anthologies in a Specified Class, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form C)

	Percent of Classes					
	Public Schools (n=170)	Achievement Award Schools (n=59)	Centers of Excellence (n=54)	Catholic Schools (n=46)	Independent Schools (n=32)	Chi-Square (df=8)
Extent of Use						
Not at all	9.4	22.0	20.4	13.0	32.4	
For supplementary reading	27.5	27.1	33.3	13.0	21.6	
As main source of selections	63.2	50.8	46.3	73.9	45.9	23.39**
Adequacy as a Source of Selections						
Excellent	41.4	23.5	37.0	46.2	60.7	
Adequate	51.0	68.6	54.3	53.8	39.3	
Poor	7.6	7.8	8.7	0.0	0.0	15.75*
Adequacy as a Source of Teaching Suggestions						
Excellent	28.3	10.2	12.8	35.1	16.0	
Adequate	59.3	55.1	66.0	45.9	56.0	
Poor	12.4	34.7	21.3	18.9	28.0	22.51**

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 5.3

Percent of Literature-Related Class Time Focused on Particular Genres
During the Past Five Days in a Specified Class:
Grades 9-12, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Mean Percent of Class Time						
	Public Schools (n=120)	Achievement Award Schools (n=63)	Centers of Excellence (n=44)	Catholic Schools (n=41)	Independent Schools (n=29)	Within-Group SD	F-Statistic (df=4;292)
Novels	30.8	33.3	41.5	28.6	42.2	(41.2)	1.02
Plays	19.8	20.7	25.0	17.2	7.4	(34.9)	1.20
Stories	22.8	15.9	11.0	21.2	22.4	(33.6)	1.25
Poetry	14.1	15.0	14.8	16.7	13.5	(28.9)	0.08
Non-fiction	6.0	6.5	3.3	8.0	10.6	(19.7)	0.69
Film or video	4.8	3.7	1.2	3.4	1.7	(9.2)	1.59
Other	1.8	5.0	3.2	4.8	2.1	(13.3)	0.81

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

placed more emphasis on short stories (43 percent of class time, versus 25 percent in Grades 9 and 10 and 20 percent in Grades 11 and 12), and less emphasis on book-length works (Table 5.4). Attention to book-length works rose from 33 percent of class time in junior high/middle school classes to 53 percent in Grades 11 and 12. Attention to poetry also showed an increase across the grades from 8 percent of literature time in the junior high to 17 percent by Grades 11 and 12.

Variations by track also occurred for plays, which received less emphasis in nonacademic track classes (5 percent of class time, versus 22 percent for college preparatory classes). There was correspondingly more emphasis in nonacademic tracks on short stories, novels, and media.

The Specific Selections

In an earlier study, we examined the book-length works required of any group of students at each of the high school grades (Applebee, 1989a). Replicating Anderson's 1964 study, we found that the most frequently required book-length texts were remarkably traditional. In spite of two decades of arguments for broadening the canon, and in spite of the legitimation of ethnic and women's studies in the university curriculum, the results of our survey revealed that white male authors from the Western tradition still dominated the selections.

At the same time, it is clear that publishers of literature anthologies have conscientiously broadened the basis of their selections in recent years, working to informal if not formal guidelines to better represent women and minority groups in the anthologized selections.

To examine this further, we asked teachers in the present study to list all of the selections that students in a specified class had studied during the past five days, either in class or for homework. They were prompted for selections representing a variety of genres and media.

Table 5.5 lists the most frequently reported individual authors across all samples, separately by genre. Of the 28 authors that were cited by at least 3 percent of the responding teachers, one is African American (Langston Hughes) and two are women (Emily Dickinson and Harper Lee). Shakespeare was cited most frequently, having been taught during the past five days in 23 percent of the classrooms reported on; Steinbeck was next (7 percent); and Langston Hughes was third (6 percent). In overall character, the selections look little different from those in the earlier survey of book-length works.[1]

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1. In spite of differences in sampling procedures, the results correspond well with our other surveys, where Shakespeare and Steinbeck, respectively, were the two most frequently taught authors of book-length works, and Harper Lee was the only woman whose work appeared in the ten most frequently taught titles (Applebee, 1989a). The results for Hughes and Dickinson are also consistent with other Center studies. Our analyses of the 7 most popular anthology series found Dickinson to have the most anthologized selections, and Hughes to be the most anthologized minority author. Both Dickinson and Hughes are also anthologized at every grade level except British literature (Applebee, in process), which probably contributes to their high ranking across grades here.

Table 5.4

Percent of Literature-Related Class Time Focused on Particular Genres During the Past Five Days in a Specified Class, by Level and Track (Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Public Schools, by Level				
	Junior High/ Middle School (n=41)	Grades 9-10 (n=58)	Grades 11-12 (n=62)	Within-Group SD	F-Statistic (df=2;158)
Novels	23.2	25.9	35.3	(39.2)	1.44
Plays	10.2	22.2	17.5	(32.8)	1.59
Short Stories	43.4	25.3	20.4	(38.2)	4.71**
Poetry	7.8	10.9	17.0	(26.6)	1.63
Nonfiction	2.9	6.4	5.6	(17.4)	0.50
Film or video	4.4	6.2	3.6	(10.6)	0.97
Other	8.0	3.1	0.6	(14.7)	3.16*

	Grades 9-12, by Track				
	Nonacademic (n=34)	Mixed (n=75)	College Preparatory (n=188)	Within-Group SD	F-Statistic
Novels	40.3	34.7	32.2	(41.3)	0.58
Plays	4.7	18.0	22.3	(34.6)	3.77*
Short Stories	22.9	30.6	14.2	(33.0)	6.84***
Poetry	10.1	9.2	17.7	(28.6)	2.86
Nonfiction	10.6	2.0	7.4	(19.5)	2.92
Film or video	8.0	3.4	2.8	(9.2)	4.66**
Other	3.4	2.1	3.5	(13.5)	0.27

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Table 5.5

Authors Most Frequently Taught in the Past Five Days, All Samples
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

Poetry		Novels	
Langston Hughes	(6%)	John Steinbeck	(7%)
Robert Frost	(5)	Mark Twain	(5)
John Donne	(5)	Charles Dickens	(5)
Carl Sandburg	(3)	F. Scott Fitzgerald	(4)
Alfred Lord Tennyson	(3)	George Orwell	(4)
Geoffrey Chaucer	(3)	William Faulkner	(3)
John Keats	(3)	William Golding	(3)
Emily Dickinson	(3)	Harper Lee	(3)
T.S. Eliot	(3)	Thomas Hardy	(3)
William Wordsworth	(3)		
William Butler Yeats	(3)		

Plays		Short Stories	
William Shakespeare	(23%)	Nathaniel Hawthorne	(3%)
Sophocles	(5)	Ernest Hemingway	(3)
Tennessee Williams	(4)	James Joyce	(3)
Arthur Miller	(4)	Flannery o'Connor	(3)

n=274 teachers

Lists of "most frequent" authors, however, can mask a broader range of authors who may be taught by individual teachers, with less consistency in choice from classroom to classroom. To examine this, we categorized the titles by gender and race/ethnicity of the author, and by date of original composition. The results are summarized in Table 5.6, which is based on the characteristics of all of the print selections teachers reported using, not just those cited most frequently. (Other media, totalling 8 percent of the selections mentioned, are excluded from this data.) Since the study was conducted primarily in the spring, with follow-up of nonrespondents continuing into the fall, the results are skewed toward selections taught late in the year. This is likely to produce a somewhat heavier influence of recent works than would the curriculum for the whole year, particularly in chronologically-organized American and British literature courses.

The results again suggest that the canon as a whole has remained very narrow. In each genre, 79 percent or more of the works taught had male authors, and no more than 14 percent in any genre were written by minorities. There was some variation by genre, with gender being particularly limited in plays (96 percent male-authored -- primarily Shakespeare), and ethnicity being particularly limited in novels (4 percent minority authors), plays (2 percent minority), and short stories (2 percent minority). These results suggest that the vast majority of instructional effort still seems to be focused on a very traditional canon.

Table 5.6 also indicates the time period during which the various selections were written. Again, the data indicate very clear differences among genres. Novels show the broadest selection of recent works, with 73 percent of those being taught coming from the twentieth century, and fully 26 percent being written since 1960. Plays, on the other hand, had the greatest proportion of pre-nineteenth century works (the result of the popularity of Shakespeare's plays), with another cluster of plays that were written between 1930 and 1959. The distribution of short stories across time periods resembled that for novels, though with somewhat more selections drawn from the early twentieth century and somewhat fewer written since 1960. The poetry selections were distributed most evenly, with 48 percent nineteenth century or earlier, and the remainder distributed across the twentieth century.

Factors Influencing What Selections Are Taught

The results, then, suggest that in all genres the curriculum as a whole remains relatively traditional. While it is encouraging to find Langston Hughes at the top of the list of frequently taught poets (a function in part of the use of his poems at virtually all levels except British literature, and in part to a sampling bias here toward more contemporary works), poetry represents a very small part of the curriculum in most classes. The overall emphasis in the curriculum remains on selections by white, male authors from an Anglo-Saxon tradition. This finding leads in turn to questions about why teachers make the choices they do, and what the constraints upon them may be.

The first question we asked was simply whether individual teachers felt the freedom to teach the selections they wanted. Table 5.7 reports the relevant data, from a question that asked them to indicate how much freedom they had. In the random sample of public schools, only 5 percent of the teachers reported little or no leeway in the selections they taught, whereas 30 percent felt they had complete freedom of choice. The others reported various degrees of freedom to add to core selections, to choose from a recommended list, and to ask to have addi-

Table 5.6

Characteristics of Selections Used During Last Five Days, by Genre
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

	Percent of Selections							
	Novels (n=264)	Plays (n=138)	Short Stories (n=153)	Poetry (n=330)	Non-Fiction (n=75)	Other (n=25)	All (n=985)	Chi-Square(5)
Male author	78.6	95.5	81.9	83.4	85.5	80.0	83.7	19.05***
White author	96.1	98.5	97.8	88.0	87.9	85.7	93.2	32.05**
Date written								Chi-Square(20)
Pre-19th century	1.5	59.1	.7	25.7	26.8	46.2	19.9	300.45***
19th century	25.3	6.1	22.6	22.6	32.1	0.0	21.2	
20th century	73.2	34.8	76.6	51.7	41.1	53.8	58.9	
1900-29	13.8	1.5	25.5	21.9	1.8	0.0	15.3	
1930-59	33.3	28.8	38.7	16.6	19.6	23.1	27.3	
1960-89	26.1	4.5	12.4	13.2	19.6	30.8	16.3	

Table 5.7

Teachers' Freedom to Select the Literature They Teach, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Percent Indicating [a]					
	Public Schools (n=169)	Achievement Award Schools (n=64)	Centers of Excellence (n=50)	Catholic Schools (n=42)	Independent Schools (n=33)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Complete freedom of choice	29.6	29.7	30.0	33.3	45.5	3.47
Must teach certain core selections	38.5	48.4	36.0	40.5	36.4	2.58
Free to choose from approved list	37.5	46.9	40.0	31.0	12.1	12.32*
Can add at will to core selections	36.7	34.4	38.0	42.9	27.3	2.12
Can ask to have additional selections approved	29.0	46.9	36.0	33.3	21.2	9.08
Little or no leeway in selections	5.3	0.0	0.0	2.4	0.0	8.24

[a] Teachers were asked to "check all that apply."

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

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tional selections approved. The only real variation in freedom of choice occurred for teachers in the independent school sample. They were somewhat more likely to report complete freedom of choice (46 percent), and were least likely to have to choose from an approved list (12 percent). Although we had expected that teachers would have more freedom of choice for nonacademic track classes, the results did not support this expectation. The proportions reporting complete freedom of choice were nearly identical for nonacademic and college preparatory classes (28 and 31 percent, respectively). The college preparatory classes did place slightly more emphasis on teaching certain core selections (43 percent versus 31 percent for nonacademic tracks), but the difference was not statistically significant.

Teachers' freedom to select literature of their own choosing is also strongly influenced by school size (Table 5.8). Teachers in large schools are much less likely to have complete freedom of choice than are those in small schools, and much more likely to work within the constraints of a departmental list of recommended or approved titles. Whereas in a small school a teacher is likely to know what students have read from grade to grade (indeed, may even teach students at each grade), in a large school such lists are one way to provide a similar measure of continuity and consistency in what is taught.

Influences on Book Selection

A second group of teachers was asked to rate the importance of a variety of possible influences on their choice of selections to teach. The nine possible influences included in the questionnaire are listed in Table 5.9, which summarizes the results of a factor analysis of the ratings, carried out to examine the underlying major influences on teachers' choices.

The first factor, Community Reaction, was defined by "parental censorship," "community pressure groups," and (less centrally) "availability of texts." The second factor, Departmental Policies, was defined by "departmental syllabus," and "departmental book selection policies." The third factor, Teacher Judgment, was defined by "personal familiarity with the selection," "likely appeal to students," and "discussion with other teachers." "Literary merit" was moderately positively related to both Teacher Judgment and Departmental Policies; it is interesting that it was negatively related to concerns about Community Reaction.

Table 5.10 summarizes the influences on book selection reported by teachers in each of the samples surveyed. The most important criterion, cited by fully 92 percent of the teachers in the public school sample, was literary merit, followed by personal familiarity with the selection (80 percent), likely appeal to the student (71 percent), availability of texts (68 percent), and departmental syllabus (65 percent). The only significant differences among the samples occurred for the items related to community reaction. Teachers in the random sample of public schools were somewhat more likely than those in any of the other samples to worry about community pressure groups or parental censorship (Moffett, 1988, has recently reminded us just how real those pressures can be). Teachers in the independent schools were also less likely to worry about the availability of texts (35 percent, compared with 68 percent in the public schools).

Table 5.11 summarizes the same data for different grade levels and tracks. Items related to teacher judgment, particularly the likely appeal of a selection to students, received more

Table 5.8

Teachers' Freedom to Select the Literature They Teach: Public Schools by School Size

	Percent Indicating [a]			
	Under 500 (n=18)	500-1499 (n=72)	1500 (n=24)	
Complete freedom of choice	44.4	30.6	4.2	9.54**
Must teach certain core selections	27.8	33.3	54.2	4.11
Free to choose from approved list	11.1	41.7	41.7	6.08*
Can add at will to core selections	55.6	30.6	50.0	5.47
Can ask to have additional selections approved	16.7	34.7	41.7	3.06
Little or no leeway in selections	0.0	4.2	8.3	1.73

[a] Teachers were asked to "check all that apply."

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 5.9

Factor Analysis of Influences on Book Selection Policies for a Selected Class

	Factor I Community Reaction	Factor II Departmental Policies	Factor III Teacher Judgment
Community pressure groups	.88	-.01	.10
Parental censorship	.85	.05	.02
Availability of texts	.50	.20	.02
Departmental book selection policies	.20	.81	-.09
Departmental syllabus	.07	.85	-.06
Personal familiarity with the selection	.06	-.20	.70
Likely appeal to students	.09	-.15	.67
Discussion with other teachers	.10	.40	.59
Literary merit	-.20	.25	.32

Principal components analysis with rotation of eigenvectors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 to the Varimax criterion. The three factors account for 55.1% of the original variance.

Table 5.10

Influences on Book Selection Policies for a Specified Class: Grade 9-12 by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

	Percent Reporting as a "Major Influence" [a]					
	Public Schools (n=113)	Achievement Award Schools (n=53)	Centers of Excellence (n=37)	Catholic Schools (n=41)	Independent Schools (n=34)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Teacher Judgment						
Likely appeal to students	71.4	84.9	82.1	78.0	70.6	5.04
Discussion with other teachers	50.9	58.5	60.5	63.4	58.8	2.64
Personal familiarity with the selection	80.4	92.5	87.2	78.0	88.2	5.81
Departmental Policies						
Departmental syllabus	64.6	64.2	75.7	70.7	61.8	2.39
Departmental book selection policies	55.5	45.3	51.4	60.0	36.4	5.69
Community Reaction						
Parental censorship	15.6	7.5	2.6	7.7	8.8	6.55
Community pressure groups	9.1	0.0	2.6	0.0	2.9	10.57*
Availability of texts	68.2	55.4	55.3	56.4	35.3	12.92**
Literary merit	91.9	96.1	100.0	97.6	97.1	5.56

[a] Ratings of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (no influence) to 5 (major influence).

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Table 5.11

Influences on Book Selection Policies for a Specified Class, by Level and Track

(Teacher Reports, Form B)

	Percent Rating as a "Major Influence" [a] Public Schools, by Level			
	Junior High/ Middle School (n=44)	Grades 9-10 (n=55)	Grades 11-12 (n=58)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Teacher Judgment				
Likely appeal to students	95.7	74.5	68.4	11.95**
Discussion with other teachers	67.4	65.4	45.6	4.91
Personal familiarity with the selection	87.0	83.6	77.2	1.77
Departmental Policies				
Departmental syllabus	50.0	69.1	60.3	3.73
Departmental book selection policies	39.1	68.5	42.9	10.70**
Community Reaction				
Parental censorship	20.5	13.2	17.9	0.94
Community pressure groups	0.0	5.6	12.5	6.46*
Availability of texts	68.2	64.8	71.4	0.55
Literary merit	84.8	88.9	94.7	2.83

	Grades 9-12 by Track			
	Nonacademic (n=17)	Mixed (n=69)	College Preparatory (n=190)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Teacher Judgment				
Likely appeal to students	82.4	78.6	74.7	0.80
Discussion with other teachers	47.1	65.7	54.5	3.33
Personal familiarity with the selection	88.2	87.1	82.6	1.01
Departmental Policies				
Departmental syllabus	70.6	62.3	67.9	0.83
Departmental book selection policies	50.0	51.4	51.4	0.01
Community Reaction				
Parental censorship	17.6	17.1	7.1	6.61*
Community pressure groups	0.0	10.0	2.7	7.30*
Availability of texts	70.6	60.9	59.6	0.81
Literary merit	94.1	91.4	97.3	4.33

[a] Ratings of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (no influence) to 5 (major influence).

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

emphasis in the junior high/middle school classes (and in nonacademic tracks), while community pressure groups were a particular concern to eleventh and twelfth grade teachers (who may be dealing with more adult, and more controversial, selections). Departmental policies had the greatest influence on selections in Grades 9 and 10, where they were rated as much more important than in the junior high school or in Grades 11 and 12.

Teachers' Attitudes Toward Selections from Selected Traditions

To explore further the reasons underlying the choices of selections for study, we asked teachers a series of questions about their success in using selections of various types with a specific class. These questions were embedded in a longer series of questions about teaching techniques that were successful with particular types of literature. This part of the series asked about success in teaching "great works" from the Western tradition, selections by minority authors and by women, adolescent and young adult literature, and selections from non-Western literatures.

Results for the teaching of "great works" are summarized in Table 5.12. In the random sample of public schools, between 41 and 57 percent of the teachers reported success with "great works," with somewhat more reporting success for novels and somewhat less for poems. Teachers in the Achievement Award schools (and to a lesser extent, those in Centers of Excellence) were particularly enthusiastic about using great works from the Western tradition in their teaching. Great works were much more likely to be reported as successful in the college preparatory tracks than in nonacademic and heterogeneously grouped classes (Table 5.13), however.

Table 5.14 summarizes parallel data for teachers' ratings of success in teaching works from alternative literary traditions. The most striking aspect of these results is the difference between ratings for different genres. Half or more of the teachers in the random sample of public schools reported success with poems and short stories by women or minorities. Considerably fewer reported success with novels by women (33 percent) or minorities (25 percent), while plays by women and minorities received the lowest ratings of all (18 and 13 percent, respectively). Selections from non-Western literature, and adolescent or young adult selections, were reported as successful by a minority of the teachers for all of the genres examined.

Differences among the various samples of schools were minimal. The only significant differences occurred for adolescent novels and plays, both of which were rated more highly by teachers in the random samples of teachers in public and Catholic schools.

Summary

Our examination of the selections chosen for study leads to a picture of a curriculum dominated by familiar selections drawn primarily from a white, male, Anglo-Saxon tradition. In most classrooms, these selections are chosen by the teacher from a literature anthology and from class sets of book-length texts. As earlier surveys have suggested (Tanner, 1907; Anderson, 1964; Applebee, 1989a), William Shakespeare is by far the most popular author; he was followed at considerable distance in the present study by John Steinbeck and Langston Hughes.

Table 5.12

Successful Teaching of "Great Works," by Sample and Type of Literature
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

	Percent Reporting					
	Public Schools (n=166)	Achievement Award Schools (n=58)	Centers of Excellence (n=51)	Catholic Schools (n=41)	Independent Schools (n=59)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Poems	41.6	62.1	58.8	53.7	46.2	10.07*
Short stories	48.8	56.9	62.7	46.3	46.2	4.63
Plays	47.6	67.2	54.9	61.0	51.3	7.76
Novels	57.2	81.0	62.7	65.9	61.5	10.67*

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 5.13

Successful Teaching of "Great Works," by Track and Type of Literature
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

	Percent Reporting			
	Nonacademic (n=22)	Mixed (n=115)	College Preparatory (n=215)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Poems	36.4	38.3	56.3	11.27**
Short stories	36.4	43.5	57.2	7.78*
Plays	36.4	42.6	61.9	14.11***
Novels	45.5	50.4	71.6	17.57***

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 5.14

Successful Teaching of Literature from Alternative Traditions, by Sample and Type of Literature
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

	Percent Reporting					
	Public Schools (n=166)	Achievement Award Schools (n=58)	Centers of Excellence (n=51)	Catholic Schools (n=41)	Independent Schools (n=39)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Selections by minority authors						
Poems	51.2	50.0	58.8	34.1	46.2	6.01
Short stories	58.4	48.3	49.0	34.1	46.2	8.94
Plays	13.3	8.6	7.8	7.3	12.8	2.42
Novels	24.7	15.5	17.6	22.0	20.5	2.72
Selections by women						
Poems	53.6	50.0	52.9	43.9	46.2	1.75
Short stories	53.6	50.0	45.1	43.9	51.3	1.97
Plays	17.5	15.5	11.8	17.1	23.1	2.14
Novels	32.5	29.3	23.5	43.9	35.9	4.78
Adolescent and young adult selections [a]						
Poems	17.5	14.8	22.5	15.0	26.5	2.74
Short stories	30.7	18.5	17.5	25.0	14.7	6.29
Plays	13.2	1.9	2.5	17.5	5.9	11.50*
Novels	37.7	16.7	15.0	35.0	26.5	12.87**
Selections from non-Western literatures						
Poems	23.5	25.9	27.5	17.1	38.5	5.46
Short stories	26.5	22.4	23.5	24.4	28.2	0.66
Plays	14.5	19.0	7.8	9.8	10.3	3.90
Novels	16.9	15.5	11.8	22.0	15.4	1.81

[a] Grades 9-12.

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

While it is encouraging to see Hughes emerging high in the list of frequently taught authors, and first in the list of poets, the overall proportions of selections by minorities and by women remain low. Across genres, only 7 percent of the selections taught in the past 5 days were written by a minority author, and only 16 percent were written by a woman. In using works by women and minorities, teachers report more success with poems and short stories than with novels and plays, but this success does not seem to have had much influence on the works they chose to teach.

Teachers report three sets of influences on their choices of selections to teach: Departmental Policies, Community Reaction, and Teacher Judgment (including their familiarity with specific selections). Taken together, their reports suggest that when it comes to broadening the canon to include more works by women and minorities, teachers may be unsure of the literary merit of new selections, personally unfamiliar with them (thus making them initially less teachable), and worried about community reaction-- and as a result the curriculum changes with glacial slowness.

6. Instructional Support: Critical Approaches, Teaching Techniques, and Assessment of What Students Know

Introduction

The teaching of literature is not defined just by the choice of texts to teach. More important questions concern what teachers do to support and guide students' readings of those texts, and how they assess what students have learned. A reading of To Kill a Mockingbird that raises questions about students' own experiences with discrimination or unfairness will be very different from a reading that treats the text as an exercise in social history, and that in turn will be very different from a reading that focuses on reading comprehension skills, on techniques of literary analysis, or on the place of this novel in the history of contemporary American fiction.

All of these types of readings, of course, have their own legitimacy, and each has been characteristic of the teaching of literature at one or another point in the history of education in American schools. As favored schools of literary criticism have changed in the universities, so too have the techniques that teachers have used to explicate the selections taught in middle and high schools. Different critical theories privilege different kinds of questions about texts, and lead to different emphases in assessment.

The past 20 years have been a period of intense intellectual ferment in critical theory. The hegemony of the New Criticism, which had come to dominate college English during the 1950s and 1960s, was quickly eroded by a variety of approaches that challenged the belief that the text was primary and possessed a relatively determinate meaning. Whether formulated as reader response theory, deconstruction, feminist criticism, structuralism, post-structuralism, or Marxist criticism, the certainty of New Critical analyses have given way to formulations that force a more complex examination of the assumptions and expectations about readers, authors, and texts as they are situated within specific personal and cultural contexts.

The challenges to New Criticism, however, have taken place largely in the realm of critical theory. Only a few scholars have begun to give serious attention to the implications of these newer approach for classroom pedagogy (Bleich, 1975; Scholes, 1985; Graff, 1987), and most of that attention has been focused at the college level. Even at the college level, however, despite the ferment in critical theory, the majority of undergraduates still receive an introduction to literature that has been little influenced by recent theory (Harris, 1988; Waller, 1986).

The notable exception to this general pattern concerns reader response theories. As schools in the 1960s and early 1970s experimented with approaches to make education more "relevant" and "student centered," a number of educators turned to the work of Louise Rosenblatt (1938, 1978) for an alternative to New Critical approaches (e.g., Moffett, 1968; for a later

application, see Probst, 1988).[1] Rosenblatt, who emphasized the transaction between reader and text as the heart of the literary experience, offered a model of literature instruction as "quiet conversation" about books, a conversation in which students would examine their differing responses to shared texts, exploring what in the text and in their own experience led them to react as they did. In that process, they would enrich their understanding both of the text and of themselves.

Rosenblatt's discussions were in fact very slim in the way of specific pedagogical techniques. What she offered, however, was a compelling intellectual rationale for returning the student to the center of the instructional enterprise, and for recognizing that each reader's individual response could be a legitimate part of classroom discourse. Many later developments in reader response theory share central concerns with Rosenblatt's argument, even when they locate themselves in alternative intellectual or pedagogical traditions (Andrasick, 1990; Bleich, 1975; Fish, 1980; Holland, 1973; Langer, 1990a; Iser, 1978; Probst, 1988; Tompkins, 1980).

Critical Theory in the Classroom

In our earlier study of programs with reputations for excellence (Applebee, 1989b), we asked teachers about their familiarity with recent developments in critical theory. In that study, just over 70 percent of the teachers reported little or no familiarity with contemporary literary theory. As one teacher put it, "These are far removed from those of us who work the front lines!" (Given the lack of attention to pedagogical implications of recent theories even at the college level, this is probably a fair comment, though it doesn't help much in providing a basis for the high school curriculum.)

In the present study, teachers were also asked about the influence of various critical approaches on their teaching in a particular class. Their responses are summarized in Table 6.1.

As in the earlier study, teachers reported that recent alternative approaches, including feminist criticism, had little influence on their instruction. Teachers in the Catholic school sample were somewhat more likely to rate such theories as influencing their teaching, but even in the Catholic sample, only 14 percent cited feminist approaches and 11 percent cited other alternative literary theories.

The critical approaches that the teachers did cite as influencing their teaching of a particular class were those of New Criticism (50 percent of the teachers in the random sample of public schools) and reader response (67 percent). Reader response was particularly popular among the Catholic school teachers and among the teachers in the two samples of award-winning schools, and least popular in the independent schools-- though even there it was cited as a major influence on their teaching by 48 percent of the teachers. New Criticism was somewhat more popular with teachers in the Achievement Award schools (68 percent), but the differences among samples were not significant.

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1. Rosenblatt (1978) herself rejects the word "response" as too limiting and behavioristic in its implications.

Table 6.1

Critical Approaches to Literature Influencing the Teaching of a Specified Class:
Grades 9-12, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Percent of Schools [a]					
	Public Schools (n=116)	Achievement Award Schools (n=62)	Centers of Excellence (n=40)	Catholic Schools (n=42)	Independent Schools (n=30)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Reader response emphasis on student interpretations	66.7	68.3	79.5	82.9	48.3	12.21*
New Critical close reading of individual texts	50.0	67.7	57.5	52.4	50.0	5.76
Feminist criticism	8.4	6.5	7.9	13.5	0.0	4.30
Other recent alternative literary theories (e.g., deconstruction, structuralism)	4.0	0.0	0.0	11.4	3.7	10.13*

[a] Rating of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (little or no influence) to 5 (major influence).

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

The influence of specific types of critical theory also varied with grade level and track. New Criticism in particular was much more influential in the upper grades and in college preparatory classes (Table 6.2). Differences among grade levels and tracks in the influence of reader response theory and of other recent alternatives were not significant.

Although the critical theories from which these approaches devolve treat reader response and New Criticism as alternatives in opposition to one another, teachers seem to effect an eclectic compromise. When responses to both questions are considered, some 38.5 percent of the teachers gave high ratings to the influence of reader response **and** New Criticism on their teaching with a specific class, and another 41.1 percent reported at least moderate influence of both approaches; 3.3 percent stressed New Criticism and not reader response; 12.3 percent stressed reader response and not New Criticism; and 4.8 percent stressed neither.[1]

What these results seem to reflect is a situation in which reader response approaches are seen as generally useful, across a wide range of grade levels and groups of students. New Critical approaches, with their emphasis on close analysis of individual texts, are seen as most appropriate for the upper tracks and the upper grades. Teachers do not rate other approaches as having much influence on their instruction at all.

Specific Instructional Techniques

Commitment to one or another critical approach is likely to carry with it an emphasis on a series of related instructional techniques. A New Critical approach, for example, is likely to emphasize techniques that focus on the text and "how it means" (Ciardi, 1960), while a reader response approach is likely to emphasize techniques that explore and justify a reader's response.

Thus in another series of questions we asked teachers to rate the importance of a variety of specific instructional techniques in their study of literature with a specified class. To investigate the underlying consistencies in their choice of techniques, a principal components factor analysis was carried out on their ratings. The results are summarized in Table 6.3.

The first factor, Student-Oriented Techniques, is defined by such techniques as "focusing on links to everyday experience," "selecting readings of interest," "encouraging awareness of the reading process," and "encouraging wide reading." The techniques that emerge on this factor are related in a loose way to a reader response approach, though they can also be interpreted as a concern with motivating students and capturing their interest.

The second factor, "Activity-Oriented Techniques," is defined by techniques such as "using films or videos," "requiring memorization of selected passages," "asking students to read aloud or dramatize selections," "requiring memorization of selected passages," and "organizing small group discussions." As a group, the techniques seem to reflect a concern with compelling direct involvement in the literary experience, rather than allowing a passive or distant response.

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1. For these figures, ratings of 1 or 2 were considered low, 3 was considered moderate, and 4 or 5 were considered high, on a scale from 1 (little or no influence) to 5 (major influence).

Table 6.2

Critical Approaches to Literature Influencing the Teaching of a Specified Class, by Level and Track
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Percent of Schools [a] Grade 9-12, by Level			
	Junior High/ Middle School (n=34)	Grades 9-10 (n=58)	Grades 11-12 (n=58)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Reader response emphasis on student interpretation	59.5	69.0	64.4	0.91
New Critical close reading of individual texts	29.4	43.1	56.9	6.72*
Feminist criticism	5.9	9.3	7.5	0.34
Other recent alternative literary theories (e.g.,) deconstruction, structuralism)	0.0	2.0	5.9	2.66

	Grade 9-12, by Track			
	Nonacademic (n=34)	Mixed (n=71)	College Preparatory (n=185)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Reader response emphasis on student interpretation	55.9	75.7	69.4	4.30
New Critical close reading of individual texts	26.5	43.7	64.9	22.16***
Feminist criticism	3.2	13.2	6.4	4.23
Other recent alternative literary theories (e.g., deconstruction, structuralism)	0.0	1.5	4.9	2.76

[a] Rating of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (little or no influence) to 5 (major influence).

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Table 6.3

Factor Analysis of Teachers' Reports of Techniques That Are Important in Helping Students in their Study of Literature in a Specified Class (Teacher Reports Form C)

	Factor I Student-Oriented	Factor II Activity-Oriented	Factor III Text-Oriented
Focusing on links to everyday experience	.63	.05	-.13
Selecting readings of interest	.62	.05	-.06
Encouraging awareness of the reading process	.60	.15	.24
Encouraging wide reading	.59	.10	.25
Encouraging alternative interpretation	.53	-.01	.18
Using films or videos	.01	.73	.01
Requiring memorization of selected passages	-.02	.65	.20
Organizing small group discussions	.17	.57	-.07
Asking students to read aloud or dramatize selections	.31	.57	.00
Careful questioning about the content	.11	-.09	.76
Careful line-by-line analysis	.01	.08	.73
Introducing literary terms	.20	.30	.53
Providing for guided, individualized reading	.49	.30	.20
Reading aloud to students	.48	.26	-.11
Providing study guides for specific selection	.18	.46	.28
Organizing class discussions	.31	.08	.14

n=368

Principal components analysis with rotation of the three largest vectors to the Varimax criterion. The three factors account for 40% of the original variance.

The third factor, "Text-Oriented Techniques," is defined by approaches such as "careful questioning about the content," "careful line by line analysis," and "introducing literary terms." These can be loosely associated with a New Critical approach, though they can also be explained in terms of a concern with developing a body of specific knowledge about literature, including both knowledge of content and knowledge of important literary concepts and analytic techniques.

The emergence of separate factors for student- and text-oriented approaches parallels our earlier findings about teachers' reported goals and their reliance on various critical theories. At all levels in theory and practice, teachers seem to operate eclectically, drawing on a range of approaches as they plan and carry out instruction in literature rather than committing wholeheartedly to one or another competing paradigm. The issue that these ratings cannot address is whether this leads to a rich and varied instructional environment, or whether it reflects an underlying incoherence in literature instruction.

Table 6.4 summarizes teachers' ratings of the importance of each of the techniques, organized around the three factors. A separate set of techniques that were not closely associated with any one factor are listed separately at the bottom of the table.

The most highly rated technique in the random sample of public schools was organizing class discussions (rated as important by 91 percent of the teachers), which reflects the typical approach to literature instruction through class discussion of commonly read texts. Other techniques that were highly rated by three quarters or more of the teachers included focusing on links to everyday experience (91 percent), careful questioning about the content (87 percent), encouraging wider reading (86 percent), selecting readings of interest (81 percent), encouraging alternative interpretations (77 percent), and introducing literary terms (76 percent). The only approaches that were not endorsed by a solid majority of the teachers surveyed were requiring memorization of selected passages (18 percent) and careful line-by-line analysis (34 percent). In general, student-oriented techniques were rated somewhat higher than text-oriented ones, and both sets were rated higher than activity-oriented approaches.

Differences among techniques that were popular in the various samples of schools were slight. Small group discussions were most popular in the two samples of award-winning schools and least popular with Catholic and independent school teachers. An emphasis on literary terms was most popular in the random sample of public schools and least so in independent school settings. The use of study guides to lead students through their texts was least popular in the Centers of Excellence and Catholic school samples, and most popular in the public schools and the Achievement Award schools. Other variations in ratings of specific techniques were not significant.

Table 6.5 summarizes variations in the techniques that teachers report as important with different groups of students. Overall, student- and activity-oriented techniques were rated as equally important with all groups of students, but text-oriented techniques -- particularly careful line-by-line analysis -- were rated more important for college preparatory classes. College preparatory classes were also more likely to receive emphasis on alternative interpretations, wider reading, and memorization of selected passages, while nonacademic classes were more likely to be read aloud to. Films and videos were most likely to be rated as important in classes of mixed ability, perhaps as a way around divergent levels of reading ability.

Table 6.4

Techniques That Are Important in Helping Students in Their Study of Literature in a Specified Class, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form C)

	Percent Rating as "Important" [a]					
	Public School (n=174)	Achievement Award Schools (n=61)	Centers of Excellence (n=54)	Catholic Schools (n=46)	Independent Schools (n=38)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Student-Oriented						
Focusing on links to everyday experience	90.8	90.2	83.3	87.0	89.5	2.64
Encouraging alternative interpretations	77.0	91.8	87.0	78.3	76.3	8.46
Selecting readings of interest	81.0	82.0	83.0	66.7	81.6	5.57
Encouraging awareness of the reading process	59.6	65.6	56.6	60.9	43.2	5.08
Encouraging wider reading	86.8	86.9	83.3	80.0	78.9	2.62
Activity-Oriented						
Organizing small group discussions	61.8	71.7	81.1	45.7	36.8	25.92***
Asking students to read aloud or dramatize selections	67.2	63.9	66.7	69.6	65.8	0.42
Using films or video	56.3	37.7	55.6	47.8	44.7	7.52
Requiring memorization of selected passages	17.8	26.6	20.4	13.3	26.3	4.21
Text-Oriented						
Careful questioning about content	86.8	86.9	81.5	95.7	89.5	4.79
Careful line-by-line analysis	34.1	43.3	31.5	31.1	36.8	2.53
Introducing literary terms	76.3	73.8	61.1	71.7	55.3	9.73*
Other Techniques						
Organizing class discussions	91.4	96.7	94.4	89.1	89.5	3.20
Providing study guides for specific selections	64.2	67.2	42.6	47.8	60.5	12.04*
Providing for guided, individualized reading	54.1	68.9	52.8	57.8	40.5	8.14
Reading aloud to students	58.6	60.7	59.3	47.8	73.7	5.84
	Average Ratings					(SD) F-Statistic (df=4;360)
Student-Oriented	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.1	3.9	(0.55) 1.76
Activity-Oriented	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.2	3.1	(0.73) 1.99
Text-Oriented	3.8	3.9	3.7	3.9	3.7	(0.67) 1.22
Variety (total out of 16)	10.6	11.1	10.4	9.8	9.9	(2.86) 1.83

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

[a] Rating of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (unimportant) to 5 (important).

Table 6.5

Techniques That Are Important in Helping Students in Their Study of Literature in a Specified Class, by Track
(Teacher Reports, Form C)

	Percent Reporting as "Important" [B]			
	Nonacademic (n=27)	Mixed (n=108)	College Prep (n=233)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Student-Oriented				
Focusing on links to everyday experience	96.3	89.8	87.6	2.01
Encouraging alternative interpretations	51.9	75.9	87.1	22.60***
Selecting readings of interest	85.2	78.7	79.7	0.57
Encouraging awareness of the reading process	59.3	60.4	57.8	0.21
Encouraging wider reading	59.3	89.8	85.8	16.12***
Activity-Oriented				
Organizing small group discussions	48.1	62.0	63.6	2.46
Asking students to read aloud or dramatize selections	70.4	74.1	63.5	3.86
Using film or videos	51.9	63.0	45.1	9.47**
Requiring memorization of selected passages	3.7	17.6	22.8	6.07*
Text-Oriented				
Careful questioning about content	81.5	84.3	89.3	2.53
Careful line-by-line analysis	14.8	22.4	43.3	19.23***
Introducing literary terms	59.3	69.4	73.4	2.58
Other Techniques				
Organizing class discussions	81.5	90.7	94.8	7.13*
Providing study guides for specific selections	63.0	66.4	55.8	3.54
Reading aloud to students	74.1	70.4	53.2	11.50**

	Average Ratings			(Within-group SD)	F-Statistic (df=2;358)
Student-oriented	4.0	4.2	4.1	(0.55)	1.14
Activity-oriented	3.2	3.4	3.3	(0.73)	1.41
Text-oriented	3.3	3.6	3.9	(0.65)	14.49***
Variety of techniques (Total out of 16)	9.5	10.7	10.6	(2.84)	1.99

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

[B] Rating of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (unimportant) to 5 (important).

Approaches Used with Selected Genres

As we saw in chapter 3, genre plays an important role in the overall organization of literature classrooms. This raises the question of whether the techniques we have been examining are used quite generally, or whether teachers vary their approaches as they move from one genre to another.

To examine this, we asked another group of teachers to focus more specifically on the techniques that were successful in the context of teaching particular genres (poems, short stories, novels, and plays). Rather than an extended rating scale, in this case teachers simply indicated whether each technique was "successful" or not in teaching each genre in a specified class.

Poetry

Table 6.6 summarizes teachers' ratings of a variety of techniques that can be used in poetry instruction. The responses reflect teachers' concern with students' understanding of the poems, through class discussions emphasizing interpretations of the text (rated as successful by 80 percent of the public school teachers) and class discussions of students' responses (73 percent). Hearing poetry read aloud also emerges as important, reflected in emphases on both reading aloud to (75 percent) and reading aloud by (54 percent) students. Teachers also reveal considerable concern in their poetry instruction with class discussions of literary techniques (66 percent), but not with literary or cultural history (37 percent), lectures about the poems (41 percent), study guides (27 percent), or examination of professional criticism (16 percent).

Differences among the samples in their preferred techniques for poetry instruction were relatively minor. Small group discussions were most popular in the two samples of award-winning schools (where they were cited by over half the teachers), and least so in the independent schools (cited by a third). The use of professional criticism of poetry was cited most frequently in the Achievement Award and Catholic schools, and least in the independent schools. The Achievement Award and Catholic schools also tended to place more emphasis on literary or cultural history, but these differences were not statistically significant.

Differences in approaches to poetry with different groups of students were larger (Table 6.7). Almost all techniques for dealing with poetry were more likely to be cited as successful with college preparatory students than with nonacademic track groups, whether the emphasis was on student response, literary history, or the examination of professional criticism. Only two techniques were rated slightly more successful with the nonacademic classes than with college preparatory ones -- reading aloud to students and the use of study guides -- and the differences in these cases were not statistically significant. Nonetheless, even for nonacademic classes, the majority of teachers rated class discussions of interpretations and of student responses, reading aloud to students, and reading aloud by students as successful techniques in the teaching of poetry.

Table 6.6

Successful Techniques in the Teaching of Poetry in a Specified Class, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

	Percent Reporting					
	Public Schools (n=166)	Achievement Award Schools (n=58)	Centers of Excellence (n=51)	Catholic Schools (n=41)	Independent Schools (n=39)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Class discussions of						
Interpretations of the text	80.1	82.8	82.4	80.5	69.2	3.24
Literary techniques	66.3	74.1	68.6	61.0	66.7	2.11
Literary or cultural history	36.7	58.6	39.2	46.3	41.0	8.93
Students' responses	72.9	74.1	76.5	78.0	59.0	4.72
Lecture about the period, author or interpretation	41.0	53.4	33.3	46.3	38.5	5.27
Small group discussions	39.2	62.1	51.0	41.5	33.3	12.16*
Study guides for specified selections	26.5	22.4	15.7	19.5	15.4	4.25
Examination of professional criticism	15.7	31.0	17.6	24.4	10.3	9.48*
Reading aloud to students	75.3	86.2	88.2	70.7	69.2	9.02
Reading aloud by students	53.6	62.1	66.7	58.5	64.1	3.84

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 6.7

Successful Techniques in the Teaching of Poetry in a Specified Class, by Track

	Percent Reporting			
	Nonacademic (n=22)	Mixed (n=115)	College Preparatory (n=215)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Class discussions of				
Interpretations of the text	77.3	74.8	82.3	2.69
Literary techniques	40.9	59.1	74.4	13.41***
Literary or cultural history	18.2	25.2	53.5	30.06***
Students' responses	54.5	71.3	74.9	4.25
Lecture about the period, author or interpretation	31.8	38.3	45.6	2.71
Small group discussions	36.4	40.0	46.5	1.81
Study guides for specified selections	27.3	23.5	20.9	0.64
Examination of professional criticism	9.1	11.3	23.7	9.02**
Reading aloud to students	81.8	79.1	76.3	0.59
Reading aloud by students	50.0	58.3	59.5	0.75

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Short Stories

The techniques that teachers found successful in the teaching of short stories (Table 6.8) look similar to those they indicated for the teaching of poetry, with an emphasis on students' understanding through class discussions both of interpretations of text and of students' responses. The major difference in approach in the teaching of short stories was a downplaying of reading aloud to students (47 percent compared with 75 percent for poetry), and a slight increase in attention to literary history (50 percent compared with 37 percent). Significant differences among samples occurred for class discussion of student responses, favored particularly by teachers in the Centers of Excellence and in the random sample of public schools; lectures about the short story, which were particularly unpopular in the Centers of Excellence; and small group discussions, which were most popular in the two samples of award-winning schools and least popular in the Catholic schools.

There were also a number of differences in preferred approaches when teaching the short story to different groups of students (Table 6.9). Class discussions of interpretations of the text and of students' responses were rated as successful by the majority of teachers with all groups of students; discussions of literary techniques, discussions of literary or cultural history, and lectures about the short story were more likely to be rated as successful for college preparatory classes. The use of study guides, reading aloud to students, and reading aloud by students were all more likely to be rated as successful techniques for use with nonacademic track students. The examination of professional criticism was significantly more likely to be a successful technique with college preparatory classes than with others, but even there only 19 percent of the teachers cited it.

Plays

The teaching of plays presents a set of new problems to be dealt with in instruction. Compared with short stories and poems, they are usually much longer and, to the extent that the most frequently taught plays are those of Shakespeare, they present special problems of historical context, language, and interpretation.

Teachers' reports of most successful techniques reflected some of these considerations (Table 6.10). Class discussions of interpretations of the text and of students' responses continued to be rated highly, but there was also more attention to background lectures about the play and to class discussions of literary or cultural history. Reading aloud to students dropped off somewhat compared with the previous genres (reflecting no doubt the difficulties of a single voice reading dialogue), and reading aloud by students rose (to 69 percent in the random sample of public schools). The use of study guides was also reported by many teachers.

Significant differences in the responses of teachers from the various samples were limited to the examination of professional criticism related to the play. Such examination was reported by 47 percent of the teachers in the Achievement Awards sample, and by 29 and 28 percent of the teachers in the Catholic and independent school samples, respectively, compared to only 16 percent in the random sample of public schools.

Approaches by track differed considerably (Table 6.11). Reflecting a pattern similar to

Table 6.8

Successful Techniques in the Teaching of Short Stories in a Specified Class, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

	Percent Reporting					
	Public Schools (n=166)	Achievement Award Schools (n=58)	Centers of Excellence (n=51)	Catholic Schools (n=41)	Independent Schools (n=39)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Class discussions of						
Interpretations of the text	80.7	86.2	78.4	80.5	66.7	5.79
Literary techniques	69.3	79.3	66.7	56.1	74.4	6.75
Literary or cultural history	50.0	55.2	31.4	51.2	48.7	7.28
Students' responses	78.3	65.5	86.3	65.9	66.7	10.36*
Lecture about the period, author or interpretation	48.2	48.3	25.5	51.2	41.0	9.65*
Small group discussions	44.0	62.1	54.9	29.3	48.7	12.37**
Study guides for specified selections	38.0	36.2	23.5	19.5	30.8	7.66
Examination of professional criticism	10.2	19.0	13.7	22.0	12.8	5.39
Reading aloud to students	47.0	37.9	49.0	43.9	61.5	5.46
Reading aloud by students	42.2	37.9	41.2	31.7	41.0	1.65

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Table 6.9

Successful Techniques in the Teaching of Short Stories in a Specified Class, by Track

	Percent Reporting			
	Nonacademic (n=22)	Mixed (n=115)	College Preparatory (n=215)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Class discussions of				
Interpretations of the text	81.8	80.9	79.1	0.21
Literary techniques	54.5	70.4	70.7	2.52
Literary or cultural history	31.8	45.2	51.2	3.53
Students' responses	77.3	78.3	72.1	1.60
Lecture about the period, author or interpretation	22.7	45.2	46.5	4.60
Small group discussions	45.5	51.3	45.6	1.02
Study guides for specified selections	40.9	47.8	23.3	21.43***
Examination of professional criticism	0.0	7.8	18.6	11.06**
Reading aloud to students	59.1	58.3	40.0	11.37**
Reading aloud by students	40.9	51.3	33.5	9.94**

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Table 6.10

Successful Techniques in the Teaching of Plays in a Specified Class, by Sample

	Percent Reporting					
	Public Schools (n=166)	Achievement Award Schools (n=58)	Centers of Excellence (n=51)	Catholic Schools (n=41)	Independent Schools (n=39)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Class discussions of						
Interpretations of the text	74.7	86.2	70.6	78.0	64.1	7.13
Literary techniques	51.8	69.0	47.1	56.1	56.4	6.60
Literary or cultural history	56.0	77.6	56.9	58.5	56.4	9.02
Students' responses	67.5	70.7	70.6	63.4	64.1	1.01
Lecture about the period, author or interpretation	57.8	67.2	43.1	68.3	53.8	8.72
Small group discussions	46.8	16.3	14.4	11.5	11.0	2.11
Study guides for specified selections	44.0	58.6	35.3	36.6	38.5	8.00
Examination of professional criticism	16.3	46.6	19.6	29.3	28.2	22.78***
Reading aloud to students	43.4	53.4	43.1	48.8	48.7	2.16
Reading aloud by students	68.7	84.5	70.6	73.2	66.7	5.99

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 6.11

Successful Techniques in the Teaching of Plays in a Specified Class, by Track

	Percent Reporting			
	Nonacademic (n=22)	Mixed (n=115)	College Preparatory (n=215)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Class discussions of				
Interpretations of the text	63.6	69.6	79.5	5.71
Literary techniques	36.4	41.7	63.7	17.85***
Literary or cultural history	40.9	48.7	67.9	15.06***
Students' responses	50.0	64.3	70.7	4.58
Lecture about the period, author or interpretation	31.8	51.3	64.7	12.22**
Small group discussions	22.7	37.4	40.9	2.90
Study guides for specified selections	40.9	41.7	44.7	0.32
Examination of professional criticism	13.6	10.4	32.6	21.44***
Reading aloud to students	54.7	43.5	46.5	0.96
Reading aloud by students	68.2	71.3	72.1	0.16

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

that for the teaching of poetry, class discussions of all types were rated as much more likely to be successful in college preparatory classes. For all classes, discussions were more likely to be rated as successful if they focused on meanings (interpretations of text or students' responses) than if they focused on literary techniques or literary history. Other techniques more likely to be successful with college preparatory classes included lectures about the play, the examination of professional criticism, and the use of small group discussions, though for small groups the difference was not statistically significant. Reading aloud and the use of study guides were rated equally successful with all groups.

Novels

The last set of techniques to be examined are those that teachers found successful in teaching the novel. As with the other three genres, the teachers reported most success in class discussions focusing on meaning, including both interpretations of the text and students' responses (Table 6.12). At the same time, however, two-thirds of the teachers also reported success in teaching novels through class discussions of literary techniques and of literary or cultural history, and through lectures about the book being studied. Two-thirds also reported that study guides were a successful technique in this context. These reports may reflect a combination of the instructional support and background knowledge that longer works require, and the central place that teachers give to these books in defining the important content of literature instruction.

Reading aloud was less popular when teaching novels than it was with the other genres, and the examination of professional criticism more so. The latter technique was cited by 31 percent of the teachers in the random sample of public schools.

Some differences among samples in successful approaches to the novels were also evident, particularly between the two samples of award-winning schools. The Achievement Award schools placed extra emphasis on literary content, including class discussions of interpretations, of literary techniques, and of literary history; lectures about the book; and examination of professional criticism. Centers of Excellence, on the other hand, placed if anything less emphasis on these techniques than did teachers in the random sample of public schools.

Between-track differences in successful approaches to the novel are summarized in Table 6.13. Class discussion of literary techniques, lectures about the novel, and the examination of professional criticism were more likely to be rated as successful by teachers of college preparatory classes. The use of study guides, on the other hand, were more likely to be rated as successful for nonacademic tracks (though study guides were rated highly by the majority of teachers for each of the groups). A few differences in approaches with heterogeneously grouped classes are also interesting. Teachers' responses indicated that class discussions of literary techniques and of interpretations of novels were less likely to be successful with such classes than with either nonacademic or college preparatory tracks, and that reading aloud by students was more likely to be sucessful.

Table 6.12

Successful Techniques in the Teaching of Novels in a Specified Class, by Sample

	Percent Reporting					
	Public Schools (n=166)	Achievement Award Schools (n=58)	Centers of Excellence (n=51)	Catholic Schools (n=41)	Independent Schools (n=39)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Class discussions of						
Interpretations of the text	78.3	93.1	76.5	87.8	74.4	9.37*
Literary techniques	67.5	81.0	60.8	63.4	69.2	6.21
Literary or cultural history	66.9	81.0	52.9	68.3	61.5	10.24
Students' responses	74.7	70.7	76.5	80.5	71.8	1.48
Lecture about the period, author or interpretation	68.1	79.3	56.9	78.0	61.5	8.99
Small group discussions	45.8	60.3	47.1	39.0	46.2	5.24
Study guides for specified selections	69.9	65.5	58.8	61.0	43.6	10.30*
Examination of professional criticism	31.3	50.0	25.5	48.8	43.6	12.58**
Reading aloud to students	41.0	50.0	41.2	36.6	46.2	2.33
Reading aloud by students	31.9	34.5	25.5	26.8	35.9	1.87

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 6.13

Successful Techniques in the Teaching of Novels in a Specified Class, by Track

	Percent Reporting			
	Nonacademic (n=22)	Mixed (n=115)	College Preparatory (n=215)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Class discussions of				
Interpretations of the text	81.8	72.2	85.6	8.75*
Literary techniques	63.6	58.3	74.4	9.31**
Literary or cultural history	54.5	63.5	69.8	2.91
Students' responses	81.8	75.7	73.5	0.81
Lecture about the period, author or interpretation	59.1	61.7	74.0	6.31*
Small group discussions	40.9	47.0	48.8	0.54
Study guides for specified selections	81.8	68.7	59.5	5.99*
Examination of professional criticism	27.3	21.7	45.6	19.23***
Reading aloud to students	45.5	48.7	39.1	2.92
Reading aloud by students	27.3	40.0	27.0	6.09*

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Assessing What Students Know

Another set of techniques that teachers use are concerned with the assessment of student learning. Such assessment plays an important role in most classrooms and takes place at many different levels. Some of these are informal, involving monitoring of participation in classroom activities; others reflect varying degrees of formal assessment, from the teacher-developed quiz to the commercially prepared standardized test. To explore teachers' emphases in assessing student performance in literature, they were asked to rate how frequently they used each of a variety of assessment techniques in their teaching of a specified class. Ratings were on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (regularly).

A factor analysis was again used to explore patterns in teachers' usage of the various assessment techniques. The results are summarized in Table 6.14. The first factor, Essays, reflects a reliance on formal essay writing. The tasks included here reflect both student-centered and text-centered topics.

The second factor, Activities, reflects teachers' use of a variety of informal contexts for evaluating student performance. These include class discussion, group or individual projects, journal writing, brief written exercies, and role playing or dramatization.

The third factor, Tests, includes a variety of structured assessment situations, including performance on unit tests, quizzes, study guides or worksheets, departmental or district exams, and commercially available standardized tests.

Table 6.15 summarizes teachers' reports of the extent to which they use each of these forms of assessment. The single most frequent means of evaluating student performance in literature was participation in discussion, reported to be used regularly by 82 percent of the teachers in the rand sample of public schools. The next most frequently used techniques were quizzes, used regularly by 78 percent of the teachers, and brief written exercises (78 percent).

Essays of various sorts also received high ratings in evaluating literature achievement in each of the samples of schools. Teachers in the two samples of award-winning schools placed somewhat more emphasis on essays than did those in the other samples; those in the random sample of public schools put the least. All three types of essay-writing were rated highly, but those focusing on student responses or interpretations were rated somewhat more highly, and those emphasizing major themes or comparisons among texts were rated somewhat less highly.

The various types of tests showed considerably more variation in the emphasis they received. In the random sample of public schools, quizzes and unit tests were used even more frequently than were essays as a way to evaluate student achievement. Study guides or worksheets were used by the majority of teachers, but departmental and district exams and commercially available standardized tests were used much less frequently. Overall, tests of various sorts received somewhat more emphasis in the public and Catholic school samples, and somewhat less in the Centers of Excellence and independent schools.

There were no differences in modes of assessment by grade level but considerable variation by track. The data for assessment of performance of students in different tracks are summarized in Table 6.16. The biggest differences occurred for essay writing of all sorts,

Table 6.14

Factor Analysis of Teachers' Reports of Means of Assessing Student Performance in Literature in a Specified Class
(Teacher Reports, Form C)

	Factor I Essays	Factor II Activities	Factor III Tests
Formal essays focusing on literary analysis	.89	-.02	.04
Formal essays focusing on student responses or interpretations	.80	.21	-.08
Formal essays focusing on major themes or comparisons among texts	.87	.06	.04
Group or individual projects	.21	.75	-.12
Role playing or dramatization	.00	.65	.10
Journal responses	.04	.64	-.02
Brief written exercises	-.08	.49	.23
Participation in discussion	.21	.46	.21
Unit tests	.20	-.13	.71
Quizzes	-.01	-.04	.72
Study guides or worksheets	-.11	.11	.61
Departmental or district exams	.04	.20	.46
Commercially available standardized tests	-.03	.11	.44

n=361

Principal components analysis with rotation of vectors representing 10% or more of the original variance to the Varimax criterion. The three factors account for 48.0% of the original variance.

Table 6.15

Means of Assessing Student Performance in Literature in a Specified Class, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form C)

	Percent Reporting Regular Use [a]					
	Public Schools (n=170)	Achievement Award Schools (n=61)	Centers of Excellence (n=54)	Catholic Schools (n=46)	Independent Schools (n=38)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Essays Focusing on						
Literary analysis	66.1	88.5	75.9	73.9	68.4	12.05*
Student responses or interpretations	73.8	95.1	94.4	82.6	75.7	21.14
Major themes or comparisons among texts	61.4	80.3	81.5	67.4	63.2	12.66**
Activity-based Assessments						
Group or individual projects	68.2	63.9	79.6	63.0	52.6	8.14
Journal responses	42.4	41.7	38.9	25.0	23.7	8.27
Role playing or dramatization	35.5	29.5	27.8	17.4	39.5	7.07
Participation in discussion	82.1	83.6	88.7	76.1	78.9	3.06
Brief written exercises	77.8	54.1	75.9	66.7	86.8	17.95***
Tests						
Unit tests	74.7	80.3	66.7	84.8	68.4	6.17
Quizzes	79.1	73.3	68.5	87.0	83.8	6.59
Department or district exams	13.5	14.8	11.3	13.0	8.8	0.86
Commercially available standardized tests	22.8	13.3	9.3	17.8	13.5	6.93
Study guides or worksheets	57.6	50.8	27.8	37.0	42.1	18.11***

	Average Ratings					(Within-group SD)	F-Statistic (df=4;363)
Formal essays	3.7	4.4	4.3	4.0	3.8	(0.95)	7.53***
Tests	3.2	3.0	2.8	3.2	2.9	(0.73)	4.23**
Activity-based	3.2	3.2	3.4	3.0	3.1	(0.91)	1.54
Variety (total out of 13)	7.4	7.7	7.4	7.1	7.0	(2.3)	0.74

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

[a] Ratings of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (regularly).

Table 6.16

Means of Assessing Student Performance in Literature in a Specified Class, by Track
(Teacher Reports, Form C)

	Nonacademic (n=27)	Mixed (n=106)	College Preparatry (n=231)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Essays Focusing on				
Literary analysis	33.3	58.9	82.7	42.29***
Student responses or interpretations	59.3	75.9	86.6	14.99***
Major themes or comparisons among texts	34.6	55.6	79.8	33.70***
Activity-based Assessments				
Group or individual projects	40.7	75.9	65.5	12.49**
Journal responses	48.1	43.5	34.6	3.64
Role playing or dramatization	29.6	31.8	31.5	0.05
Participation in discussion	81.5	77.6	84.1	2.09
Brief written exercises	77.8	72.9	72.2	0.38
Tests				
Unit tests	66.7	70.8	77.9	3.07
Quizzes	81.5	86.0	73.5	6.83*
Department or district exams	18.5	12.1	12.3	0.88
Commercially available standardized tests	11.1	23.4	16.2	3.45
Study guides or worksheets	59.3	57.4	42.9	7.63*

	Average Ratings			(Within-group SD)	F-Statistic (df=4;363)
Formal essays	2.7	3.6	4.3	(0.87)	52.79***
Tests	3.1	3.2	3.0	(0.74)	1.71
Activity-based	3.1	3.2	3.1	(0.92)	1.28
Variety (total out of 13)	6.4	7.5	7.4	(2.28)	2.82

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

[a] Ratings of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (regularly).

which was cited much less frequently for noncollege bound students than for college preparatory classes. Heterogeneously grouped classes fell in between. Conversely, students in noncollege preparatory classes were more likely to be assessed on the basis of quizzes, study guides, or worksheets, a pattern that parallels other emphases we have seen with these classes.

Relationships among Goals, Techniques, and Means of Assessment

Questions about teachers' goals, favorite teaching techniques, and means of assessment were clustered in the questionnaires so that they could be related to one another. Do teachers who report student-oriented goals also report student-oriented teaching techniques, and do these responses in turn relate to the ways they assess student performance? Table 6.17 summarizes the relevant correlations among composite scores reflecting the factor analyses of goals, practices, and means of assessment.

The correlations in Table 6.17 reflect sizable associations between student-oriented goals and student-oriented teaching techniques ($r = .59$), and a similar association between text-oriented goals and text-oriented techniques ($r = .57$). Means of assessment, however, seem tied much less directly to specific goals. Essays, for example, were more strongly associated with text-oriented goals ($r = .43$), but of the three means of assessment, they also showed the strongest association with student-oriented goals ($r = .30$). Means of assessment as described here seem to be relatively neutral; what is assessed and the criteria of evaluation brought to bear make the most difference, not the form of the assessment instrument.

Summary

The typical high school literature class places heavy emphasis on whole-class discussion of texts that all students read. These discussions are most likely to focus on the meanings of the text, both in terms of students' experiences and in terms of careful questioning about the content. They are less likely to emphasize careful line-by-line analysis or extended discussion of literary techniques.

Taken together, teachers report a dual emphasis on techniques loosely related to reader response theories, and on those associated more directly with close analyses of text. Rather than standing in opposition to one another, these broad theoretical orientations to literary study are treated as offering independent resources to draw upon.

Teachers' approaches to text are quite consistent across the major genres taught, though with some shifts in emphasis in response to the particular characteristics of each genre. Thus poetry and plays are more likely to be read aloud; novels and plays are more likely to involve the use of study guides; and plays are more likely to include background lectures (presumably to help with the difficulties of Shakespearean language and theatre). Across all genres, however, whole-class discussions focusing on meanings and interpretations remain the primary means of instruction.

Teachers' reports on assessment techniques reflected this emphasis on discussion, with evaluation of participation in discussion being rated as the most frequent measure of progress in

Table 6.17

Correlations among Teachers' Goals, Teaching Techniques, and Means of Assessment in a Specified Class
(Teacher Reports, Form C)

	Goals	
	Student-Oriented	Text-Oriented
Teaching Techniques		
Student-oriented	.59	.41
Activity-oriented	.17	.19
Text-oriented	.28	.57
Means of Assessment		
Essays	.30	.43
Activities	.24	.10
Tests	.01	.14

n=333

literature. Formal measures of progress were dominated by quizzes, unit tests, and essays, with the balance shifting toward essays in the upper grades and in college preparatory classes, and toward quizzes and study guides in the lower grades and in noncollege tracks.

In general, considerable consistency existed between the goals teachers cited for the study of literature and the particular techniques they reported emphasizing in their classrooms. Means of assessment seemed more neutral, with essays, for example, being adaptable to a variety of different emphases depending upon the teachers' goals. Essays, however, were rarely used for noncollege bound students, who seem in general to receive a more skills-based and less literary program of instruction.

The eclectic melding of reader- and text-centered traditions that was apparent in teachers' goals and approaches raises a variety of questions about the consistency and coherence of the approaches teachers are adopting. It is clear that at the level of theory, reader- and text-centered orientations offer incompatible visions of what matters in the teaching and learning of literature.[1] Though each approach makes room for both the reader and the text, there are fundamental differences in criteria for adequacy of response and interpretation, in the role of historical and intertextual knowledge, and in what is considered of primary and what of secondary importance in discourse about literature. Such differences cannot be reconciled even through judicious borrowing from these competing traditions, though they can be ignored -- as the responses in the present study suggest most teachers are presently doing.

The results from other Literature Center studies suggest two different ways in which this eclecticism works its way through in practice. In the interviews and classroom observations in our study of outstanding programs in English (Applebee, 1989b), we found teachers sometimes used more student-centered, reader-response based techniques as motivational devices, shifting once students' interests were aroused toward a more text-based analysis of the structure of the selections being studied. In these classrooms, it was the text-based approaches that were usually validated in testing and grading of student work. In other studies of the discussion of literature in individual classrooms (Marshall, 1989; Marshall, Klages, & Fehlman, 1990), we found teachers shifting back and forth between student-centered and text-centered approaches, an alternation that often undercut their attempts to allow students to take some ownership for their interpretations and to develop a degree of autonomy and control.

Such findings suggest the need for a more pedagogically useful theory of the teaching and learning of literature to add a greater degree of coherence to the practical compromises teachers now make among their varied goals for literature instruction.

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1. Graff (1987) provides a good overview of the virulence with which alternative critical theories have confronted one another, and of their eventual compartmentalization into separate enclaves within college English departments.

7. Writing and Literature

If there have been major changes in the teaching of English in the past two decades, they have been in the teaching of writing. Spurred by the National Writing Project, by teachers' testimonials, and by a vigorous research tradition, process-oriented approaches to writing instruction have replaced product-oriented ones as the conventional wisdom in discussions of the teaching of writing. How widely such approaches have actually been implemented is less clear, however, and even where teachers claim to be using process-oriented approaches, the nature of instruction varies widely (Freedman, 1987; Langer & Applebee, 1987).

The Influence of Process-Oriented Approaches to Writing Instruction

In the present study, we were interested in the relationship between writing instruction and the teaching of literature. To what extent were teachers in these schools familiar with process-oriented approaches to writing, and to the extent that they were, had there been any impact on their teaching of literature?

Table 7.1 summarizes department chairs' reports on the influence on their departments of recent initiatives in the teaching of writing. Nearly two-thirds of the department chairs (64 percent in the random sample of public schools) felt that most teachers in their departments were familiar with the issues raised by these approaches. Nearly half felt discussions of these approaches had clarified issues in the teaching of writing (whether or not the approaches had been adopted), and an equal number felt that most teachers in their department had adopted process-oriented approaches to writing instruction. The chairs also reported some "spill over" from writing to literature: two-thirds felt that the attention to writing instruction had led to more writing about literature, and 55 percent felt that teachers were being led to rethink their approaches to the teaching of literature as well.

Process-oriented approaches were not equally popular across the various samples of schools, however. In general, teachers in the two samples of award-winning schools were considerably more likely to have been influenced by process-oriented approaches to writing instruction, and teachers in the independent and Catholic schools less likely to have been so.

The Amount of Writing Students Do

In order to examine how much writing students do, we asked teachers how many pages of writing of any sort students had done for class during the previous week, and of that writing, what percentage had been writing about literature. Their responses are summarized in Table 7.2.

In the random sample of public schools, teachers reported students had done on average 3.9 pages of writing during the previous week, 74 percent of which was writing about

Table 7.1

Influence of Recent Initiatives in the Teaching of Writing [a]
(Department Chair Reports)

		Percent of Department Chairs Reporting [b]					
		Public Schools (n=207)	Achievement Award Schools (n=67)	Centers of Excellence (n=50)	Catholic Schools (n=53)	Independent Schools (n=49)	Chi-square (df=4)
Most teachers are familiar with the issues raised by these approaches		64.6	81.8	80.0	50.9	44.9	26.51***
Most teachers have adopted these approaches in their classrooms		46.6	68.2	74.0	32.1	30.6	35.34***
Discussions of these approaches have clarified issues in the teaching of writing		48.3	71.2	78.0	50.0	36.0	29.03***
Concern with writing instruction has led to more writing about literature		66.5	65.2	74.0	79.2	64.0	4.73
New approaches to writing instruction have led teachers to rethink their approaches to the teaching of literature		54.6	53.0	78.0	54.7	40.8	14.77**
Total influences [b] (out of 5)	Mean	2.8	3.4	3.8	2.7	2.1	F (4,413)
	(SD)	(1.7)	(1.7)	(1.5)	(1.7)	(1.6)	8.04***

[a] e.g., the National Writing Project, process oriented instructional approaches

[b] Rating of 4 or 5 on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 7.2

Amount of Writing for a Specified English Class: Grades 9-12, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Public Schools (n=118)	Achievement Award Schools (n=62)	Centers of Excellence (n=44)	Catholic Schools (n=42)	Independent Schools (n=30)	Within-Group SD	F-Statistic (df 4;290)
Pages of writing of any sort done for class during the last week	3.9	4.6	4.5	3.2	4.4	(3.2)	1.64
Of this, percentage of writing about literature	73.8	86.2	85.5	76.7	64.0	(31.3)	3.70**

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

literature.[1] The amount of writing students had been asked to do was relatively consistent across samples, but teachers in the award-winning schools were even more likely to focus their students' writing on literature (averaging 86 percent), while teachers in the independent schools were somewhat less likely to do so (averaging 65 percent).

Table 7.3 summarizes differences by grade level and track. The amount of writing rose slightly (but not significantly) from the junior high to the upper high school grades, while the focus on literature showed a significant increase (from 58 percent to 80 percent). At the same time, there was a significant difference in amount of writing by track, with nonacademic tracks and heterogeneously grouped classes reporting consistently less writing than college preparatory classes. Students in nonacademic classes also tended to have somewhat less emphasis on literature in their writing (67 percent, versus 79 percent in college preparatory classes), but this difference was not statistically significant.

Types of Literature-Related Writing

When students do literature-related writing, what kinds of assignments are they given? Table 7.4 summarizes teachers' reports about the amount of emphasis they place on a variety of different kinds of literature-related writing with a specified class.

The types of writing in Table 7.4 cluster into three related sets: formal essays of various sorts, precis and comprehension exercises, and personal and literary writing. In the random sample of public schools, formal essays received the most emphasis, whether the emphasis was on critical analyses of individual texts, student responses or interpretations, or major themes or comparisons among selections. Research papers, which also fall into this set, received considerably less emphasis.

Comprehension exercises also received considerable emphasis, being cited by over half of the teachers. Precis or summary writing was less popular, being cited by only 27 percent of the teachers.

The personal and literary types of writing received the least emphasis. Reading logs or journals were reported by 32 percent of the teachers, original literary writing (stories, poems, plays) by only 25 percent, and "finish the story" or imitative assignments by only 19 percent.

Variations among the various samples of schools were, for the most part, not statistically significant. Comprehension questions were, however, less popular in the independent schools and in the Centers of Excellence.

Variations by track and level were more noticeable (Table 7.5). Formal essays of all sorts received more emphasis in the upper grades; the differences were particularly large for

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1. The total amount of writing reported here is high compared with other studies of the frequency of writing (e.g, Applebee et al., 1990). This is probably because the wording and staging of this question was such as to include activities such as answering comprehension questions and writing journal entries as part of the total writing completed.

Table 7.3

Amount of Writing for a Specified English Class, by Level and Track
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Public Schools, by Level				
	Junior High/ Middle School (n=39)	Grades 9-10 (n=57)	Grades 11-12 (n=61)	Within-Group SD	F-Statistic (df=2;154)
Pages of writing of any sort done for class during the last week	3.5	3.6	4.2	(2.9)	0.90
Of this, percentage of writing about literature	57.7	66.6	80.3	(34.4)	5.37**

	Grades 9-12, by Track				
	Nonacademic (n=34)	Mixed (n=74)	College Preparatory (n=188)	Within-Group SD	F-Statistic (df=2;293)
Pages of writing of any sort done for class during the last week	3.3	3.2	4.6	(3.1)	6.83***
Of this, percentage of writing about literature	66.7	78.1	79.1	(31.8)	2.17

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 7.4

Emphasis on Different Types of Literature-Related Writing: Grades 9-12, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Percent Reporting Major Emphasis [a]					
	Public Schools (n=113)	Achievement Award Schools (n=62)	Centers of Excellence (n=43)	Catholic Schools (n=42)	Independent Schools (n=29)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Formal Essays Focusing On						
Critical analysis of individual texts	57.5	66.1	65.1	42.9	48.3	7.60
Student responses or interpretations	68.6	66.1	72.7	62.5	51.7	4.11
Major themes or comparisons among selections	65.5	69.4	72.1	56.1	58.6	3.43
Research papers	35.1	32.2	28.6	23.1	20.7	3.62
Precis or summary	26.9	19.6	22.5	30.6	4.0	7.48
Comprehension questions	54.5	50.8	30.8	50.0	31.0	10.08*
Reading logs or journals	32.2	35.0	37.2	21.1	30.0	2.94
Composition of original literary texts (stories, poems, plays)	25.2	23.7	31.7	20.5	20.7	1.75
Continuation or imitation of literary texts (add chapters, new endings)	18.9	15.3	9.5	21.6	13.8	2.87

[a] Ratings of 5 or 4 on a scale ranging from 1 (little or no emphasis) to 5 (major emphasis).

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 7.5

Emphasis on Different Types of Literature-Related Writing, by Level and Track
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Percent Reporting Major Emphasis [a] Public Schools, by Level			
	Junior High/ Middle School (n=35)	Grades 9-10 (n=56)	Grades 11-12 (n=57)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Formal Essays Focusing On				
Critical analysis of individual texts	28.6	39.3	75.4	23.73***
Student responses or interpretations	62.2	58.6	78.3	5.73
Major themes or comparisons among selections	47.2	53.6	76.7	10.38**
Research papers	16.1	28.6	41.8	6.37*
Precis or summary	38.7	27.8	25.9	1.67
Comprehension questions	56.8	61.8	47.4	2.42
Reading logs or journals	48.7	42.1	22.4	8.26*
Composition of original literary texts (stories, poems, plays)	52.5	27.6	22.8	10.40**
Continuation or imitation of literary texts (add chapters, new endings)	24.3	20.0	17.9	0.58

	Grades 9-12, by Track			
	Nonacademic (n=32)	Mixed (n=71)	College Preparatory (n=186)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Formal Essays Focusing On				
Critical analysis of individual texts	12.5	46.5	69.4	40.73***
Student responses or interpretations	48.5	60.8	71.5	7.93*
Major themes or comparisons among selections	29.0	61.1	72.9	23.31***
Research papers	10.0	27.1	35.0	8.06*
Precis or summary	53.6	23.5	17.7	17.36***
Comprehension questions	65.6	58.2	40.1	11.28**
Reading logs or journals	54.8	37.8	25.4	12.28**
Composition of original literary texts (stories, poems, plays)	38.7	27.1	21.4	4.54
Continuation or imitation of literary texts (add chapters, new endings)	26.7	17.1	14.6	2.73

[a] Ratings of 5 or 4 on a scale ranging from 1 (little or no emphasis) to 5 (major emphasis).

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

analyses of individual texts, for which the teachers reporting major emphasis rose from 28 percent in the junior high/middle school classrooms to 75 percent in Grades 11 and 12. Personal and literary writings, on the other hand, received more emphasis in the earlier grades. Literary writing, for example, was emphasized in 53 percent of the junior high/middle school classrooms, but only in 23 percent of the classrooms in Grades 11 and 12.

College preparatory classes were also more likely to stress formal essays of all sorts than were nonacademic track classes. Formal analyses of individual texts were emphasized in only 13 percent of nonacademic classrooms, for example, but in 69 percent of the college preparatory classes. Comprehension questions and precis or summary writing, on the other hand, received considerably more emphasis in the nonacademic track, as did reading logs and journals and, to a lesser extent, the composition of literary texts of their own.

In a related question, a second group of teachers was asked to describe the most typical type of literature-related writing assignment that they used with a specified class. This question differed from the previous set in leaving the definition of "writing" open rather than providing a list of examples, which makes responses such as "comprehension questions" less likely. The question also emphasizes "most typical" rather than sampling the variety of types of writing that go on in each classroom. With these restrictions, the results, summarized in Table 7.6, look somewhat different from those just discussed.

The most typical writing assignments cited by these teachers were again formal essays, though in this case text-based essays emerged as far more typical (75 percent in the random sample of public schools) than reader-based ones (7 percent). Precis and comprehension exercises, and personal or creative writing, were cited as the most typical writing assignments in fewer than 10 percent of the classes. There were no significant differences among samples in the most typical types of literature-related writing.

The most typical type of writing assignment did vary by track and level, however (Table 7.7). Paralleling the results for emphases on different types of writing, text-based essays received more emphasis in the upper grades, and precis or comprehension exercises and personal or creative writing received more emphasis in the lower grades. Also paralleling the earlier results, text-based essays received more emphasis in the college preparatory classes, and precis and comprehension exercises received more emphasis in the nonacademic tracks.

Supporting Students' Literature-Related Writing

To further investigate the relationships between approaches to writing and approaches to literature, after teachers had described their most typical literature-related writing assignment, we asked them to indicate which of a series of specific techniques they "regularly" used in conjunction with this type of assignment in a specified class. Their responses are summarized in Table 7.8.

Of the techniques listed, all were cited by more than half of the teachers in the random sample of public schools. Within this general pattern of response, the three most regularly used techniques were written comments (93 percent), assignment of a grade (83 percent), and correction of errors in mechanics (78 percent). The two least regularly used techniques were peer

Table 7.6

Most Typical Literature-Related Writing Assignment in a Specified Class:
Grades 9-12, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Percent Reporting [a]				
	Public Schools (n=113)	Achievement Award Schools (n=59)	Centers of Excellence (n=42)	Catholic Schools (n=42)	Independent Schools (n=27)
Text-based essay	75.2	72.9	59.5	66.7	66.7
Reader-based essay	7.1	16.9	21.4	11.9	11.1
Precis or comprehension exercise	8.0	1.7	4.8	14.3	11.1
Personal or creative	9.7	8.5	14.3	7.1	11.1

Chi-Square (df=12) = 15.17, n.s.

[a] Open-ended teacher responses were each classified into one of the four categories listed here.

Table 7.7

Most Typical Literature-Related Writing Assignment in a Specified Class, by Level and Track
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Percent Reporting [a]		
	Public Schools, by Level		
	Junior High/ Middle School (n=34)	Grades 9-10 (n=54)	Grades 11-12 (n=59)
Text-based essay	41.2	70.4	79.7
Reader-based essay	8.8	3.7	10.2
Precis or comprehension exercise	26.5	13.0	3.4
Personal or creative	23.5	13.0	6.8

Chi-Square (df=6) = 20.64, p< .002

	Grades 9-12, by Track		
	Nonacademic (n=31)	Mixed (n=67)	College Preparatory (n=185)
Text-based essay	48.4	61.2	77.3
Reader-based essay	12.9	17.9	10.3
Precis or comprehension exercise	25.8	4.5	5.4
Personal or creative	12.9	7.0	16.4

Chi-Square (df=6) = 27.14, p < .001

[a] Open-ended teacher responses were classified into one of the four categories listed here.

Table 7.8

Techniques Used in Teaching Literature-Related Writing, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Percent Reporting Regular Use [a]					
	Public Schools (n=165)	Achievement Award Schools (n=64)	Centers of Excellence (n=50)	Catholic Schools (n=42)	Independent Schools (n=33)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Written comments	92.7	98.4	96.0	92.9	93.9	3.26
Assignment of a grade	82.5	89.1	92.0	85.7	75.8	5.69
Correction of errors in mechanics	77.6	82.8	74.0	90.5	78.1	4.89
Prewriting activities	69.7	85.9	76.0	61.9	63.6	10.27*
Provision for choice of topic	69.7	82.8	86.0	61.9	75.8	11.16*
Multiple drafts	58.2	71.9	78.0	52.4	57.6	11.03*
Peer response groups	57.3	62.5	66.0	50.0	48.5	4.19

[a] Teachers were asked to check all techniques used regularly.

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

response groups (57 percent) and multiple drafts (58 percent). Differences among samples to some extent paralleled the earlier reports on the influences of process-oriented reforms in instruction: teachers in the two samples of award-winning schools were more likely than their peers to report regular provision for choice of topic, prewriting activities, and multiple drafts.

There were no significant differences in the use of these techniques at different grade levels, and only a few differences associated with track (Table 7.9). These involved assignment of a grade and written comments, both of which were somewhat more likely to be used with college preparatory classes.

The results reported here parallel those from other studies of teachers' approaches to writing instruction (Applebee, 1981; Applebee et al., 1990). In general, these studies have found that the most frequent instructional activities center around grading and correction of completed writing, with perhaps an increasing emphasis on multiple-draft rather than first-and-final draft writing. The one unusual pattern in the present study is the relatively high proportion of teachers reporting that they make regular use of peer response groups. It is not clear whether this reflects a real change in approach or is a function of the particular wording of the question used in the present study. Previous studies have found very little use of small group work, although teachers may provide other mechanisms for students to share their completed papers with one another.

Summary

If writing and literature are often treated as independent components of the teaching of English, teachers' responses to the present survey suggest that that separation is unrealistic. In the junior high and middle school, some 58 percent of the writing students do is writing about literature -- a figure that rises to 80 percent by the senior high grades. Clearly, these two aspects of the teaching of English are closely intertwined.

It also seems clear that two decades of discussion of process-oriented approaches to the teaching of writing have had some impact on the majority of schools. Two-thirds of the department chairs reported that the majority of their teachers were familiar with such approaches. They also reported that changes in writing instruction had led to more writing about literature, and also to some changes in the ways that literature was taught. These reports are more optimistic than those from classroom observers in our previous study (Applebee, 1989b), though that study also found that changes in literature instruction were often being led by teachers who had previously been active supporters of process-oriented approaches to writing.

Reports on the kinds of literature-related writing students do, however, are somewhat less optimistic. When looked at in the context of a variety of possible classroom activities, essays and comprehension questions both receive heavy emphasis in the teaching of literature. And when teachers are asked to list their most typical writing assignment, rather than to report on the variety of writing activities in their classrooms, text-based essays dominate by a wide margin over essays that stress a reader's personal response or interpretation. Instruction in college bound classes places greater emphasis on essay writing, while that in noncollege tracks places more emphasis on exercises.

Table 7.9

Techniques Used in Teaching Literature-Related Writing, by Level and Track
(Teacher Reports, Form A)

	Percent Reporting Regular Use [a] Public Schools, by Level			
	Junior High/ Middle School (n=38)	Grades 9-10 (n=59)	Grades 11-12 (n=61)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Written comments	94.6	93.2	93.5	0.08
Assignment of a grade	78.9	79.7	87.1	1.56
Correction of errors in mechanics	73.0	81.4	79.4	0.94
Prewriting activities	76.3	69.5	67.2	0.95
Provision for choice of topic	68.4	59.3	78.7	5.27
Multiple drafts	57.9	59.3	57.4	0.05
Peer response groups	68.4	55.9	53.3	2.33

	Public Schools, by Track			
	Non-Academic (n=38)	Mixed (n=101)	College Preparatory (n=214)	Chi-Square
Written comments	86.8	92.2	97.2	8.48**
Assignment of a grade	71.1	82.4	88.3	8.08*
Correction of errors in mechanics	84.2	76.5	80.7	1.26
Prewriting activities	68.4	73.3	72.4	0.33
Provision for choice of topic	65.8	68.3	78.0	4.83
Multiple drafts	52.6	62.4	65.0	2.12
Peer response groups	60.5	56.4	58.2	0.20

[a] Teachers were asked to check all techniques used regularly.

* P< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Teachers' reports indicate considerable variety in the techniques that they regularly use when teaching writing, including such techniques as multiple drafts and peer response. The most frequently used techniques, however, remain very traditional, emphasizing written comments, assignment of a grade, and correction of errors in mechanics. Thus, although it is clear that process-oriented instruction is broadly recognized as an appropriate approach to the teaching of writing, it does not seem to have led to drastic reformulation of what teachers do, at least in the context of writing about literature.

8. The School Library

Introduction

School libraries can play an important role in strengthening the literature program. A well-chosen and attractively displayed library collection can encourage students to read on their own and can be the focus of teachers' efforts to foster guided, independent reading. A good library can also be a resource center, providing access to computer resources, other media, and information networks that reach beyond the boundaries of the school itself.

Because the library can be so important in supporting programs in literature, librarians in the sampled schools were separately surveyed about the resources available. Additional questions about library usage were included in the questionnaires distributed to teachers, allowing some comparisons between librarians' and teachers' responses within the same school.

The Library Collection

Table 8.1 summarizes librarians' reports about the overall size of the book collection in their schools.

There was wide variation in the size of library collections, whether measured in total volumes or in volumes per pupil. The independent schools and the Achievement Award schools had the largest overall collections, though when numbers of pupils are taken into account, the independent schools had by far the most volumes per pupil (74 volumes per pupil, compared with 30 or less in all of the other samples).

Whatever the size of the collection, most librarians reported that an average of 97 percent or more of the books were available on open shelves.

Availability of Selected Titles

To examine the nature of the library collection, librarians were also asked to indicate whether 24 specific titles were available in their library. The 24 titles were a disparate selection, including some titles that have been the focus of censorship disputes (e.g., Joyce's Ulysses), some that represent major works from alternative literary traditions (e.g., Walker's The Color Purple, Garcia-Marquez's One Hundred Years of Solitude), and some reflecting young adult or adolescent literature that appeals to students but whose appropriateness for school use also has been questioned (e.g., Zindel's The Pigman).

Table 8.2 summarizes the results for each title, separately for each of the samples of schools. Overall, the Achievement Award schools had on average the highest proportion of these titles available in their libraries (averaging 19 out of 24 titles), while the random sample of public schools had the lowest proportion (averaging 13 out of 24).

Table 8.1

Characteristics of School Libraries
(Librarian Reports)

		Public Schools (n=195)	Achievement Award Schools (n=63)	Centers of Excellence (n=42)	Catholic Schools (n=61)	Independent Schools (n=48)
Total volumes	M	14,304	24,445	19,154	13,388	23,033
	(SD)	(10,345)	(10,484)	(12,584)	(7,516)	(24,282)
Volumes per pupil	M	26	26	20	30	74
	(SD)	(49)	(48)	(17)	(41)	(146)
Percent of books on open shelves	M	98%	99	98	97	98
	(SD)	(4)	(2)	(2)	(5)	(4)

Table 8.2

Availability of Selected Books in School Library
(Librarian Reports)

	Percent of Libraries						
	Public Schools (n=196)	Achievement Award Schools (n=63)	Centers of Excellence (n=42)	Catholic Schools (n=62)	Independent Schools (n=48)	Chi-Square (df=4)	Squire & Applebee 1962-65
Zindel, The Pigman	94.4	92.1	95.2	88.7	77.1	15.86**	
Stowe, Uncle Tom's Cabin	89.8	90.5	92.9	90.3	93.8	0.96	
Steinbeck, The Grapes of Wrath	85.7	98.4	88.1	98.4	89.6	14.29**	75
Orwell, 1984	83.7	95.2	95.2	90.3	87.5	9.06	85
Cormier, The Chocolate War	83.7	92.1	92.9	88.7	72.9	11.13*	
Huxley, Brave New World	77.6	98.4	90.5	85.5	89.6	18.84***	69
Salinger, Catcher in the Rye	74.5	96.8	85.7	93.5	85.4	24.13***	50
Faulkner, The Sound and the Fury	67.3	95.2	73.8	93.5	89.6	37.66***	51
Ellison, The Invisible Man	65.3	87.3	83.3	85.5	79.2	20.64***	
Wright, Black Boy	62.2	85.7	71.4	59.7	77.1	16.12**	
McCullers, Member of the Wedding	60.2	95.2	83.3	74.2	77.1	33.86***	
Conrad, The Heart of Darkness	59.7	92.1	71.4	88.7	87.5	42.59***	68
Camus, The Stranger	57.7	93.7	71.4	88.7	85.4	48.02***	26
Rand, The Fountainhead	53.1	92.1	66.7	50.0	68.8	35.84***	23
Joyce, Portrait of the Artist	49.0	93.7	64.3	77.4	85.4	58.44***	46
Walker, The Color Purple	43.4	76.2	59.5	56.5	68.8	26.21***	
Cleaver, Soul on Ice	42.9	66.7	40.5	59.7	62.5	17.66***	
Joyce, Ulysses	39.8	66.7	52.4	51.6	66.7	20.65***	
Lawrence, Sons and Lovers	36.2	81.0	54.8	54.8	70.8	47.83***	
Blume, Forever	24.5	34.9	28.6	12.9	25.0	8.49	
Morrison, Song of Solomon	20.4	52.4	31.0	37.1	50.0	31.83***	
Garcia-Marquez, One Hundred Years of Solitude	13.3	46.0	28.6	17.7	52.1	49.98***	
Allende, The House of Spirits	4.6	30.2	19.0	4.8	27.1	43.02***	
Pym, Excellent Women	4.1	22.2	4.8	3.2	22.9	34.03***	
						F(4;407)	
Total available, out of 24 — Mean	12.9	18.7	15.5	15.5	16.9	17.30***	
(SD)	(6.0)	(3.4)	(5.2)	(3.8)	(6.3)		

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Squire and Applebee (1968), in their study conducted between 1963 and 1965, tallied the availability of a similar list of titles in schools nominated for the success of their English programs. The schools in their study are most comparable to the two samples of award-winning schools in the present survey and provide a convenient reference point to track changes over time. Results for nine titles that were included in both studies are also summarized in Table 8.2. The results suggest that library collections are considerably broader than they were 25 years ago. Each of these nine titles is available in a higher proportion of the libraries in the award-winning schools in the present study, and most are available in a higher proportion of libraries in the random sample of public schools as well. These results reinforce those from our earlier study of outstanding English programs (Applebee, 1989b), which similarly found that titles examined by Squire and Applebee (1968) were in general more widely available in libraries now then they were in the early 1960s. (The 1989 study examined a larger number of the Squire and Applebee titles, but had a much more limited sample of schools.)

Even given this overall evidence of strengthening resources, a number of controversial but important titles from both mainstream and alternative literary traditions are not widely available in the random sample of public schools. Titles available in less than half the public schools included Joyce's Portrait of the Artist (available in 49 percent) and Ulysses (40 percent), Cleaver's Soul on Ice (43 percent), Lawrence's Sons and Lovers (36 percent), Morrison's Song of Solomon (20 percent), Walker's The Color Purple (43 percent), Blume's Forever (25 percent), Garcia-Marquez's One Hundred Years of Solitude (13 percent), Allende's The House of Spirits (5 percent), and Pym's Excellent Women (4 percent).

Accessibility of the School Library

One of the most important characteristics of a school library is its accessibility. Students are unlikely to make good use of even the best collection if they find it difficult to gain access to the books. Table 8.3 summarizes a number of features related to the accessibility of the library.

One problem in gaining access to some school libraries is their use as a study hall or for nonlibrary classes. When library space is taken up in these ways, it is not available for students who want to use the library in conjunction with their coursework, or to teachers who want to gather materials for their classes. This problem arises across all of the sample surveyed. The problem was greatest in the Catholic schools, where nearly half (48 percent) of the librarians reported that the library was used for nonlibrary purposes. Conditions were best in the Centers of Excellence, where only 19 percent of the librarians reported the library was used in these ways.

One way that libraries can be made more accessible is to keep them open on weekends, when classes are not in session. Only a handful of the librarians surveyed reported that their libraries were open on weekends. The one major exception to this was in the independent schools (some of which are residential), where fully 46 percent reported being open for use on the weekend.

Although most libraries were not open on weekends, a sizable minority were made available to the general public in their community. Such openness can lead to a strengthening of the

Table 8.3

Accessibility of Library, by Sample

	Percent of Schools					
	Public Schools (n=197)	Achievement Award Schools (n=63)	Centers of Excellence (n=42)	Catholic Schools (n=61)	Independent Schools (n=48)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Open weekends	2.0	1.6	2.4	1.6	45.8	124.65***
Open to the public	31.6	20.0	38.1	8.1	41.7	21.87***
Used as study hall or for nonlibrary classes	29.9	35.5	19.0	48.4	38.3	11.85*
All books on open shelves	64.2	66.7	61.0	56.5	68.8	2.33
Participation in resource sharing networks	65.3	79.4	85.0	37.7	80.9	38.28***
Any nonbudgetary limits on book selection	14.5	14.5	14.3	23.0	10.9	3.60

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

overall collection, providing a good rationale for a broader selection of titles and services. Catholic schools were the least likely to open their collections to the general public (8 percent); independent schools were the most likely (42 percent).

Two-thirds of the libraries in the random sample of public schools also participated in resource-sharing networks, providing interlibrary loans and, sometimes, computer-based information systems. Such participation was even higher in the two samples of award-winning schools and in the independent schools, and lowest in the Catholic schools.

Finally, two-thirds of the libraries in the random sample of public schools reported that all of their books were on open shelves, with no restrictions on the availability of particular titles. Conversely, this means that fully a third of the schools restrict access to some of their books, presumably in order to protect students from content which is judged to be too mature or too sensitive -- or that might be so judged by some members of the community. There were no significant differences in this aspect of accessibility across samples.

In a similar vein, some 15 percent of the librarians in the random sample of public schools reported some nonbudgetary limits on their book selections, again usually having to do with avoiding works that might be objectionable on sexual, religious, or ethnic grounds.

Media Resources

As technology has come to play a larger role in our society and in our schools, library materials have broadened to include a variety of other media, including records, films, videotape, and computer equipment. Two questions asked librarians about the extent to which such nonprint materials were available through their library. Their responses are summarized in Table 8.4.

About two-thirds of the libraries in the random sample of public schools had expanded to include computer equipment or computer software. Such equipment was also reported by sizable majorities of the librarians in the other samples. The one exception was the Catholic schools, where just under half of the librarians reported that library space was used for computer-related materials. Even higher proportions of the librarians surveyed reported space devoted to other media equipment (80 percent in the random sample of public schools), though again the Catholic school librarians were somewhat less likely to include nonprint materials (64 percent).

The Library and the English Program

Teachers and librarians were also asked a variety of questions to reveal the degree to which the library and the English program worked in concert to enrich the literary experiences of their students.

Table 8.5 summarizes librarians' reports of the degree of cooperation between the library and the English department. In the random sample of public schools, over 70 percent of the librarians reported a "high" degree of cooperation with the English department. Levels of reported cooperation were roughly similar in the two samples of award-winning schools and

Table 8.4

Library Media Resources, by Sample
(Librarian Reports)

Percent of Libraries Reporting

	Public Schools (n=195)	Achievement Award Schools (n=63)	Centers of Excellence (n=42)	Catholic Schools (n=61)	Independent Schools (n=48)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Space devoted to computer equipment or software	67.0	74.2	78.0	48.3	82.2	17.97***
Space devoted to other media equiptment	79.8	82.3	90.0	63.9	85.1	12.93**

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 8.5

Cooperation Between Library and English Department, by Sample
(Librarian Reports)

Percent Reporting

	Public Schools (n=195)	Achievement Award Schools (n=63)	Centers of Excellence (n=39)	Catholic Schools (n=61)	Independent Schools (n=47)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Regular meetings to identify resources for specific instructional units	29.2	39.7	28.2	31.1	14.9	8.10
"High" level of cooperation with English department	72.4	67.7	69.0	51.6	40.4	22.48***

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

considerably lower in Catholic and independent schools. The nature of that cooperation, however, was relatively general. Only 29 percent of the librarians in the random sample of public schools reported regular meetings with members of the English department to identify resources for specific instructional units. Librarians in the Achievement Award schools were somewhat more likely to report such specific cooperation (40 percent), while those in the independent schools were least likely to do so (15 percent).

Teachers' Use of the Library

Teachers were also asked directly about how adequate the school library was as a resource in the teaching of literature. Their reports, summarized in Table 8.6, noted considerable room for improvement. In the random sample of public schools, only 47 percent rated the school library as an "excellent" resource for the teaching of literature, and the libraries in the independent schools were rated even lower. Those in the award-winning and Catholic schools, on the other hand, were rated somewhat more highly by the teachers in those schools.

Table 8.7 summarizes teachers' reports of the ways in which they use the school library to complement their teaching of literature in a specified class. (Teachers were asked simply to check all uses relevant for the selected class, not to rate relative importance or frequency.)

In the random sample of public schools, the most cited use of the library was as a resource for research papers and projects (53 percent), followed closely by as a source of films or videotapes (45 percent). Surprisingly, only 30 percent of the teachers suggested that they used the library as a source of outside reading for their students, and only 8 percent used the library as the basis of individualized reading. Uses were relatively constant across the various samples of schools, except that the independent schools were much less likely to use the library for research papers and projects, the Catholic and independent schools were less likely to use it as a source of films or videotapes, and the Achievement Award schools were more likely to use it for collections of literary criticism.

Table 8.8 summarizes differences in library use by grade and track. In general, the junior high and middle school classes were more likely to use the library for outside reading and for individualized reading programs, while the upper grade classes were more likely to use the library for research papers and projects, films or videotapes, and collections of literary criticism. Noncollege tracks were more likely than college preparatory classes to use the library for outside reading and were less likely to use it for research papers and projects.

The teachers' overall ratings of their school library can be linked with their use of the library and with various aspects of the library collection itself. Correlations between these ratings and selected characteristics and uses of the library are summarized in Table 8.9.

The two characteristics that had the strongest relationship to teachers' ratings of the library were its total number of books and the number of specific titles available out of the 24 included on the library checklist. The percent of books available on open shelves and regular meetings between the library staff and the English department were also significantly related to individual teachers' ratings of the usefulness of the library. The library uses that were most strongly related to the overall rating of the library were its use for sources of literary criticism

Table 8.6

Adequacy of School Library as a Resource in the Teaching of Literature, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

	Percent Rating Library as "Excellent" [a]					
	Public Schools (n=163)	Achievement Award Schools (n=55)	Centers of Excellence (n=50)	Catholic Schools (n=40)	Independent Schools (n=38)	Chi-Square (df=11.45)
	47.2	69.1	60.0	60.0	42.1	11.45*

[a] Rating of 1 or 2 on a scale from 1 (excellent) to 5 (poor).

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 8.7

Teachers' Reports of Use of Library for a Specified Class: Grades 9-12, by Sample
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

	Percent Reporting					
	Public Schools (n=119)	Achievement Award Schools (n=54)	Centers of Excellence (n=40)	Catholic Schools (n=42)	Independent Schools (n=34)	Chi-Square (df=4)
Research papers and projects	52.9	50.0	50.0	52.4	20.6	11.87*
Films or videotapes	45.4	40.7	50.0	26.2	23.5	10.31*
Books for outside reading	30.3	38.9	35.9	23.8	26.5	3.36
Biographical information on authors	26.1	38.9	22.5	33.3	32.4	4.31
Collections of literary criticism	16.8	42.6	17.9	28.6	20.6	15.11**
Individualized reading programs	7.6	9.3	10.0	9.5	2.9	1.69
Books to read aloud to students	7.6	5.6	5.0	2.4	0.0	3.91

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 8.8

Teachers' Reports of Use of Library for a Specified Class, by Level and Track
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

	Percent Reporting Public School, by Level			
	Junior High/ Middle School (n=50)	Grades 9-10 (n=59)	Grades 11-12 (n=60)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Research papers and projects	38.0	42.4	63.3	8.38*
Films or videotapes	26.0	45.8	45.0	5.53
Books for outside reading	66.0	39.0	21.7	22.31***
Biographical information on authors	26.0	25.4	26.7	0.02
Collections of literary criticism	0.0	10.2	23.3	14.47***
Individualized reading programs	20.0	11.9	3.3	7.63*
Books to read aloud to students	22.0	11.9	3.3	9.10**

	Grades 9-12, by Track			
	Nonacademic (n=12)	Mixed (n=81)	College Preparatory (n=81)	Chi-Square (df=2)
Research papers and projects	16.7	42.0	59.3	10.00**
Films or videotapes	50.0	39.5	38.3	0.60
Books for outside reading	50.0	49.4	29.6	7.08*
Biographical information on authors	16.7	25.9	27.2	0.60
Collections of literary criticism	16.7	6.2	16.0	4.22
Individualized reading programs	8.3	12.3	9.9	0.34
Books to read aloud to students	8.3	17.3	6.2	5.04

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Table 8.9

Relationships among Teachers' Ratings of the Library, Library Characteristics, and Library Uses

	Correlation With Teachers' Ratings of the Library (n)	
Characteristics:		
Volumes in library	.32***	(189)
Volumes per pupil	-.08	(186)
Computer in library	.11	(187)
Other media in library	.01	(187)
Titles available (out of 24)	.26***	(189)
Regular meetings with English department	.13*	(191)
Percent of books on open shelves	.14*	(188)
Uses of library:		
Research papers and projects	.08	(352)
Films or videotapes	.04	(352)
Books for outside reading	.15**	(351)
Biographical information on authors	.05	(352)
Collections of literary criticism	.17***	(351)
Individualized reading programs	.03	(352)
Books to read aloud to students	.03	(352)

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

and for outside reading.

In general, these correlations suggest that the more comprehensive and accessible the library collection, the more likely teachers are to use it as a basis for their students' outside reading and the more likely they are to rate it highly. The other resources available through the library, such as videotapes and computer software, have much less relationship to teachers' ratings of usefulness.

Classroom Libraries

In addition to the school library, many teachers also make use of their own in-class collections of books. Sometimes such collections are coordinated through the school library, sometimes they are organized by the department, and sometimes they are built up over time by the individual teacher. However they are compiled, they are relatively widespread (Table 8.10). In the public school sample, 59 percent of the teachers reported using a classroom book collection with the particular class they were discussing. Responses from teachers in the other samples were slightly lower, ranging from 43 percent in the Achievement Award schools to 50 percent in the independent schools. Usage was particularly high in the junior high/middle school classes (80 percent in the random sample of public schools), decreasing to 57 percent by Grades 11 and 12.

Teachers' descriptions of classroom libraries, as well as their reports on how they use the school library, suggest that they place particular emphasis on encouraging wide reading in the junior high and middle school, and gradually focus more tightly around a common core of classroom readings in the high school grades.

Broadening the Canon

Given the continuing concern with increasing the representation of women and minorities in the selections for study, librarians were also asked to suggest books and authors that could be used to broaden the selections for study, and that they had found to be particularly appealing to students. Authors they mentioned most frequently are listed in Table 8.11.

This list can be a good starting point in looking for alternatives to traditional selections, yet it is surprising how few of the libraries included important titles by these authors. Of the 18 authors listed in the table, books by 3 (Alice Walker, Toni Morrison, and Judy Blume) were included in the list of 24 specific titles that librarians were asked to check against their library holdings. Only 43 percent had Walker's The Color Purple, 25 percent Blume's Forever, and 20 percent Morrison's Song of Solomon.

Summary

Reports on library resources available to support the program in literature suggest that school library collections have been strengthened over the past 25 years but that considerable room for improvement remains. Less than half of the English teachers in the present study

Table 8.10

Availability of Classroom Book Collection for a Specified Class, by Sample, Level, and Track
(Teacher Reports, Form B)

		Percent Maintaining Classroom Book Collection
Grades 9-12, by Sample:		
Public Schools	(n=110)	59.1
Achievement Awards Schools	(n=53)	43.4
Centers of Excellence	(n=40)	45.0
Catholic Schools	(n=42)	42.9
Independent Schools	(n=34)	50.0
		Chi-Square (df=4) = 5.79, ns.
Public Schools, by Level:		
Junior High/Middle School	(n=45)	80.0
Grades 9-10	(n=51)	60.8
Grades 11-12	(n=58)	56.9
		Chi-Square (df=2) = 6.52, p< .05
Grades 9-12, by Track:		
Nonacademic	(n=17)	47.1
Mixed	(n=68)	60.3
College Preparatory	(n=189)	48.1
		Chi-Square (df=2) = 3.07, ns.

* p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001

Table 8.11

Librarians' Suggestions for Increasing the Representation of Minorities and Women

Author	(Percent Mentioning)
Maya Angelou	(23%)
Alice Walker	(17)
S.E. Hinton	(13)
Walter Dean Myers	(10)
Mildred Taylor	(9)
Toni Morrison	(8)
Anne Tyler	(7)
Rosa Guy	(7)
Louise Erdich	(6)
Mary Higgins Clark	(6)
Judy Blume	(5)
Lois Duncan	(5)
Tony Hillerman	(4)
Zora Neale Hurston	(4)
M.E. Kerr	(4)
Gloria Naylor	(4)
Sylvia Plath	(4)
Cynthia Voigt	(4)

n=117 librarians

rated their school library as an "excellent" resource in the teaching of literature.

Teachers' ratings of the library were related most directly to the size of the library collection and to the availability of specific titles. Ratings were lower for libraries that restricted access to some materials, and higher for those where the library staff met regularly with the English department to coordinate use of materials. Computer and media resources, though part of most library collections, were not related to teachers' ratings of the library's usefulness.

Libraries were used most frequently for research papers and for films or videotapes; surprisingly, they were used much less frequently to encourage wide reading or as part of individualized reading programs, though such uses increased in schools where the teachers rated the library collection more highly. The majority of the teachers supplemented resources available in the school library with a classroom book collection, particularly in the junior high/middle school grades.

When librarians were asked for suggestions for broadening the curriculum to include a better representation of women and minorities, they offered a varied list of authors. It is perhaps revealing of how much collections need to be broadened, however, that the three authors we had asked specifically about on the library checklist were available in fewer than half of their libraries.

9. Issues in the Teaching of Literature

The results presented in the previous chapters provide a consistent picture of the teaching of literature in American schools. Rather than recapitulate the detailed results that have already been presented, this chapter will provide an overview and then turn to long-term, continuing issues that must be addressed.

The teaching of literature as it emerges in this study is a relatively traditional enterprise. The typical literature classroom is organized around whole group discussion of a text everyone reads, with the teacher in the front of the class guiding the students toward a common or agreed-upon interpretation. Teachers recognize a variety of text- and student-centered goals, and rely on activities and techniques that reflect these two broad sets of goals. Rather than strongly divergent alternative approaches, emphases on students or on texts are treated as legitimate and complementary emphases to be drawn upon at different times for different purposes. Student-centered approaches are often used as motivating techniques in the lead-in to more formal, text-centered study.

Selections for study are drawn most often from a commercial literature anthology, although in schools that have the economic resources to provide them there is also considerable emphasis on separately bound class sets of novels and plays. The selections chosen for study, whether drawn from the anthology or from other sources, tend to be traditional. William Shakespeare remains the single most popular author, and the vast majority of the selections that are taught are from a white, male, Anglo-Saxon tradition. Contemporary literature, at least when defined as selections from the past 30 years, receives a reasonable amount of attention; this is particularly true for contemporary novels.

Overall there is considerable complacency about the teaching of literature. The majority of department chairs do not expect to see major changes in their programs or approaches in the next few years, and the majority of teachers rate their teaching of literature as a particular strength of their programs in English.

The lack of concern about the program in literature should not be surprising. The profession as a whole has focused its attention over the past 20 years on the teaching of writing, pointing out problems, urging reforms, producing new materials, and spending considerable amounts of money on in-service programs for teachers. Throughout that period, the teaching of literature has continued unchanged and unexamined. The only serious challenges to current approaches have come from a reaction against a broadening of the canon of texts (e.g., Hirsch, 1987) (a reaction that the results from the current study suggest may be unwarranted) and more indirectly from changes in writing instruction.

The various studies that have been conducted at the Center for the Learning and Teaching of Literature have suggested a series of issues that need to be addressed in the teaching of literature, issues that reflect the growing edges of theory and practice, and the starting points for any meaningful reform. They offer another way in which to place the results from the present study into a broader perspective.

Issue 1. We need to develop programs that emphasize students' ability to develop and defend their interpretations of literary selections, rather than ones that focus primarily on knowledge about texts, authors, and terminology.

As we noted in chapter 1, the conventional wisdom about the teaching of language has shifted increasingly toward an emphasis on constructivist approaches. Rather than treating the subject of English as a subject matter to be memorized, a constructivist approach treats it as a body of knowledge, skill, and strategies that must be constructed by the learner out of experiences and interactions within the social context of the classroom. In such a tradition, to know a work of literature is not to have memorized someone else's interpretations, but to have constructed and elaborated upon one's own within the constraints of the text and the conventions of the classroom discourse community.

Teachers' goals for the teaching of literature as revealed in the present study seem caught between constructivist and earlier traditions. On the one hand there is considerable concern with text-centered goals that are in part a legacy of New Critical techniques and in part a legacy of skills-oriented instructional approaches. On the other hand there is also considerable emphasis on student-centered goals and on the critical frameworks offered by reader response criticism. These goals are more in keeping with a constructivist framework for teaching and learning, though as currently implemented they seem more closely related to earlier traditions of concern with students' motivation and "personal growth."

The traditional teacher-centered classroom reflected in the results of the present study offers an effective means of conveying a large body of information in a relatively short period of time. It is not a particularly effective or efficient framework for instruction within a constructivist framework, however. Rather than helping students develop their own strategies and approaches to the reading of literature, the teacher-centered classroom is much more likely to stress shared interpretations and group consensus. It is also likely to rely upon discussions in which some or all of the students are invited to respond to the teacher's questions, rather than upon discussions that engage each student in an extended exploration of his or her own ideas, developing them in the context of comparing them with others' views. (Note that the quarrel here is not with class discussions, or with instruction centered around shared experiences of books; it is with the presumption that such experiences should begin from the teacher's knowledge of correct interpretations, toward which everyone should be led.)

The patterns of instruction revealed in the current study reflect an English classroom divided against itself. In the teaching of writing, teachers are more likely to emphasize the development of students' meaning-making abilities. Even if not fully accepted, process-oriented approaches to writing instruction are at least widely understood. In the teaching of literature, on the other hand, the focus on the student is likely to stop after an initial emphasis on developing motivation and interest. At that point, a focus on the text, with the attendant concern with common interpretations, the "right answers" of literary study, comes to the fore.

Issue 2. We need to develop a theory of the teaching and learning of literature to guide the rethinking of English language arts instruction.

If we are to shift the emphasis in instruction from the teacher and the text toward the

student and the process of understanding, then we need a much clearer set of theoretical principles to guide instruction. Recent developments in critical theory have for the most part ignored pedagogical issues, and teachers in these samples of schools, like those in our earlier study (Applebee, 1989b), found little in current theory to revitalize their instructional approaches. Instead, they rely in their curriculum planning and day-to-day instruction on traditional organizational devices such as genre, chronology, and themes; on reader response theory to foster student involvement; and on New Critical approaches to provide techniques for the study of individual texts. Though they make a practical compromise with these two traditions, drawing on both, this eclecticism produces tensions and inconsistencies within the classroom, rather than a coherent and integrated approach to the teaching and learning of literature.

What is lacking is a well-articulated overall theory of the teaching and learning of literature, one that will give a degree of order and coherence to the day-to-day decisions that teachers make about what and how to teach. Such a theory is needed to place the various critical traditions into perspective, highlighting the ways in which they can usefully complement one another in the classroom as well as where they are contradictory. What text should we choose? How should we decide what questions to ask first about a literary work? How should a student's response be followed up? What kinds of writing about literature will lead to the development of more comprehensive interpretations? Of what does a "good" interpretation consist? It is questions such as these that need to be revisited within a more comprehensive theoretical frame.

Relatively well-established traditions within the teaching of writing and reading have begun to provide such frameworks for those aspects of the English language arts. The teaching of literature, however, has until recently remained largely outside of recent movements in those fields. One of the most comprehensive attempts to develop such a framework for the literature curriculum has been carried out by Judith Langer (1989, 1990) and her colleagues at the Literature Center. In a series of studies, they have been reexamining the process of understanding from the reader's point of view, and then using the results of that examination to rethink how literature instruction can best support students' efforts as they learn to become more effective readers. Such careful examination of the processes of teaching and learning are a necessary first step to the articulation of the principles of an effective constructivist framework for teaching and learning.

Issue 3. We need to revitalize instruction for noncollege bound students.

One of the clearest patterns to emerge from the present survey is the extent to which noncollege bound students are given a more skills-oriented, and less interesting, program of study than that given their college bound peers. Compared with literature instruction for the college bound, that for the noncollege bound has lower overall expectations, more emphasis on worksheets and study guides, less composition of coherent text, more quizzes and short-answer activities, less reading, more language study (i.e., grammar and usage), less individualized reading, and less use of the library.

Surprisingly, perhaps, the one place in which the curriculum of the noncollege bound does <u>not</u> differ much from that of the college bound is in the selection of texts. Their curriculum is just as traditional as that of their peers, with Shakespeare's plays leading the list of most

frequently taught texts.

Problems with programs for the noncollege track are hardly a recent development: the existence of such problems was one of the major findings of the Squire and Applebee (1968) study of exemplary programs in the early 1960s. For the most part, general or vocational programs in English are simply derivative of the college preparatory program, with more emphasis on "skill and drill" and less on literature and the humanities. That teachers find these courses uninteresting to teach and students find them dull to take is hardly surprising. What is surprising is that we have let the problems continue so long without a serious attempt to find remedies that would make these courses more interesting, and more effective, for students and teachers alike.

Issue 4. We need to broaden the canon of selections for study.

The recent revival of interest in the literature curriculum, and with it of interest in research in the teaching and learning of literature, has been due in no small part to concerns about a watering down of the traditional cultural content of the English course. Critics such as William Bennett (1984) and E.D. Hirsch (1987) have called for reasserting a focus on texts of cultural importance, the "great works" of Western civilization that have ostensibly been replaced by less important writings by women or minorities, or by those drawn from non-Western traditions.

In that context, it has been surprising to find in this and our earlier studies (Applebee, 1989a,b) that the selections actually taught remain very narrowly defined. In the present survey, only 16 percent of the selections chosen for study during a five day period were written by women, and only 7 percent were by non-White authors.

The narrowness of the selections is particularly troublesome given some 20 years of emphasis in the professional literature on the need to move beyond traditional selections, to better recognize the diverse cultural traditions that contribute to contemporary American life as well as to the broader world of which we are a part. The strategies that have been adopted so far to broaden the selections have centered on providing resource lists of selections from various traditions and on broadening the materials included in the literature anthologies. Clearly, however, new strategies are needed. The responses from the teachers in the present study suggest a variety of factors that may contribute to their reluctance to expand the selections they teach. These include a lack of familiarity with the selections they might use, doubts about the literary quality of much of the available material, and worries about community reaction. If the canon is really to be broadened, these problems and concerns are going to have to be more directly confronted.

Issue 5. We need to provide supportive contexts for our programs in literature.

Teachers of English do not work alone. In our earlier case studies of programs with reputations for excellence, we found that the best programs were characterized by strong departmental leadership, with an awareness of and trust in the professionalism of the classroom teacher. Many of the outstanding programs could also boast of abundant resources within the

English department and in the school at large.

The present survey has highlighted the extent to which schools in all five samples can rely upon experienced and well-trained teachers to carry out the program in literature, and the quality of the faculty led the list of program strengths that teachers themselves cited. Also among the strengths that teachers reported were support from the principal and department chair.

Nonetheless, when the various samples of schools in the present survey are compared with each other, one of the major differences that emerges between the two samples of award-winning schools and the other samples is the level of resources available. The award-winning schools tended to have better libraries, more abundant resource materials, a larger array of literature-related extracurricular activities, and lighter teaching loads. Teachers in these schools were also more likely to rate the support of the community as a strength, and to have continued their own training beyond the master's level. Resources alone do not make for excellent programs, and many of the differences among schools in the present study reflect socioeconomic differences in the communities they serve. Nonetheless, when schools do not have adequate resources, it becomes much more difficult to provide students with a challenging program in literature.

Supportive institutional contexts consist of more than just money, however. They also consist of institutional structures at the school and district level that support teachers in their professionalism rather than constrain their power to make educationally sound decisions about the instruction they offer. The support of the department chair, the principal, and the community at large are all important to the development of a strong program in literature. This support involves not only the endorsement of what teachers wish to do in their classrooms but also the establishment of appropriate systems of evaluation (of students and of teachers) -- so that curriculum and assessment can work together to support student learning. Support at these levels will be particularly critical as teachers begin to change their approaches to literature, moving away from the teacher-centered whole-class discussions toward more innovative approaches.

A Janus Look

The teaching of literature as we know it is only about 100 years old, having entered the schools in the late nineteenth century. Some aspects of literature instruction have remained remarkably constant, even as instruction has been reshaped in light of new demands on schools in general and on teachers of English in particular. From the beginning, literature instruction has constituted the central part of the teaching of English, the core around which other components are orchestrated. From the beginning, it has focused on a body of major texts that get reconfigured around themes, genres, or chronology, but that continue to play an important role in teachers' conceptions of the curriculum. From the beginning, instruction has consisted primarily of whole class discussion focused on these major texts. And from the beginning, literature instruction has been justified for its contribution to other objectives (mental discipline, vicarious experience, reading skill) rather than for any particular, unique contribution that the study of literature may make in its own right.

As we begin a second century of the teaching of literature, it is time to examine these enduring characteristics of literature instruction, asking ourselves which are appropriate and essential, and which have continued only because they have remained unexamined. I believe we finally are moving to a point where we can state the values of a literary education more clearly and forcefully, in terms that will justify just as much attention to literary study as our nation periodically invests in math, science, and "basic" literacy skills. And I also believe that in making that statement, we will provide the rationale for more carefully considered choices from among the many competing approaches to teaching and learning that are now manifest in our school programs.

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Appendix: Survey Instruments

Department Chair Questionnaire

Teacher Questionnaire (Form A)

Teacher Questionnaire (Form B)

Teacher Questionnaire (Form C)

Librarian Questionnaire

DEPARTMENT CHAIR QUESTIONNAIRE

How many years of English (grades 9-12) are required for graduation? _____

In the following grades, approximately what proportion of time in English focuses primarily on literature? 9th:____% 10th:____% 11th:____% 12th:____%

How important are each of the following in determining the curriculum in literature in your school?

	Major				Minor
State or district course of study	5	4	3	2	1
Departmental course of study	5	4	3	2	1
Informal departmental consensus	5	4	3	2	1
Each individual teacher	5	4	3	2	1

If there is a formal curriculum in literature, when was it last updated? _____

Please indicate what percentage of your students are exposed to any of the following in the teaching of literature in your school:

advanced placement classes ____%
Project EQuality ____%
humanities courses ____%
team taught courses ____%
remedial reading or writing classes ____%

How many English teachers are there in the department? Full-time: _____
Part-time: _____

Please indicate which anthology series (if any) are used by your department at each of the applicable grade levels:

Grade 7: _____

Grade 8: _____

Grade 9: _____

Grade 10: _____

Grade 11: _____

Grade 12: _____

Please indicate the extent to which the following statements accurately describe the influence of recent initiatives in the teaching of writing on your department (e.g., the National Writing Project; process-oriented instructional approaches)?

	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
Most teachers are familiar with the issues raised by these approaches.	5	4	3	2	1
Most teachers have adopted these approaches in their classrooms.	5	4	3	2	1
Discussions of these approaches have clarified issues in the teaching of writing, even when teachers disagree with them.	5	4	3	2	1
Concern with writing instruction has led to more writing about literature.	5	4	3	2	1
New approaches to writing instruction have led teachers to rethink their approaches to the teaching of literature.	5	4	3	2	1

If there is a formal curriculum in writing, when was it last updated? _____

What support do you receive for coordinating departmental activities?

Released time (periods) _____
Salary increment _____
Clerical help _____
Other (please specify:_____

At which grades, if any, is the English program based on a range of alternative elective courses? _____

Within the literature curriculum, what is the primary emphasis during each of the high school years? (E.g., British literature, genre study, electives on specific authors or topics.)

Grade 7: _____
Grade 8: _____
Grade 9: _____
Grade 10: _____
Grade 11: _____
Grade 12: _____

Does your department use department- or district-wide exams in English at any grade level? ___yes ___no

If so, at what grades? _____

How are these exams used? (Check all that apply.)

Course grades ____
Competency requirements ____
Tracking or placement ____
Graduation requirements ____

If possible, please send us a copy of one recent department- or district-wide exam.

Does the school or department sponsor any literature-related extracurricular activities? (Please check all that apply.)

___Journalism ___Literary magazine ___Debate club
___Drama ___Creative writing club ___Book club
___Film club ___Great Books program ___Other (please specify:)_____

Do any changes in content or approach to the teaching of literature seem likely in the new few years in your department? ___yes ___no

If so, please explain:

Please append any other material or comments that would help us in understanding the teaching of literature in your school.

School Background

Grade span covered: _____
Total enrollment: _____
Student body: Percent Asian: _____%
Percent Black (Non-Hispanic): _____%
Percent Hispanic: _____%
Percent other minority: _____%
Percent White (non-Hispanic): _____%

Percent of entering students who graduate: _____%
Percent of graduates who go on to college: _____%

Community served (circle one):
1 primarily urban
2 primarily suburban
3 primarily small town
4 primarily rural
5 mixed

How many periods are there in a typical school day? _____
How long is the typical period (minutes)? _____

Please include your name and address if you would like to receive a summary of results. Return the completed questionnaire to CLTL, School of Education, 1400 Washington Avenue, Albany, NY 12222.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP!

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE (FORM A)

How many years have you taught English? _____ years
What is your highest degree (check one)?
___ Bachelor's ___Master's ___ Master's plus ___Doctorate
Preparation in English or a related field (check all that apply):
___Undergraduate Major ___Minor ___Graduate ___None
On the average, how many classes do you teach each day? _____
What is the average class size? _____
How many different preparations does this represent? _____

From your current teaching schedule, select one class that is representative of your teaching of literature. Base your answers to the following questions on this one class.

What is the specific title of this course: _____
Is this class:
___required for the students taking it
___an option in a required area
___an elective
What grade level do the students primarily represent? _____
How many students are in this class (number on roll)? _____
Which of the following best describes this class (check one)?
___remedial ___nonacademic ___college preparatory ___honors ___mixed

Approximately how many pages of literature-related reading do students do each week in this class?

_____ pages per week

During the past 5 days of class, approximately what percent of lesson time was spent on literature-related activities such as reading, writing about literature, or discussing a selection?

Percent of lesson time: _____ %
Percent of homework time: _____ %

During the same 5 days of class, of the total literature-related time, what proportion focused on each of the following genres?

Novels: _____ %
Plays: _____ %
Short stories: _____ %
Poetry: _____ %
Non fiction: _____ %
Film or video: _____ %
Other (please specify):_____ _____ %
(Total: 100%)

To what extent can you select the literature you teach? (Please check all that apply.)
___Complete freedom of choice.
___Must teach certain core selections.
___Free to choose from approved list.
___Can add at will to core selections.
___Can ask to have additional selections approved.
___Little or no leeway in the choice of selections.

To what extent do the following approaches influence your teaching of this class?

	Major Influence				Little or None
New Critical close reading of individual texts	5	4	3	2	1
Reader-response emphasis on student interpretations	5	4	3	2	1
Feminist criticism	5	4	3	2	1
Other recent alternative literary theories (e.g., Deconstruction, Structuralism)	5	4	3	2	1
Other literary approaches (please specify below)	5	4	3	2	1

Does this class participate in any book purchasing clubs? ___yes ___no
If so, which? _____

How much emphasis do you place on the following types of literature-related writing for this class?

	Major Emphasis				Little or None
formal essays focusing on critical analyses of individual texts	5	4	3	2	1
formal essays focusing on student responses or interpretations	5	4	3	2	1
formal essays focusing on major themes or comparisons among selections	5	4	3	2	1
precis or summary	5	4	3	2	1
answers to comprehension questions	5	4	3	2	1
reading logs or journals	5	4	3	2	1
composition of original literary texts (stories, poems, plays)	5	4	3	2	1
continuation or imitation of literary texts (add chapters, new endings)	5	4	3	2	1
research papers	5	4	3	2	1
other types of literature-related writing (please explain:)	5	4	3	2	1

_____

What is the most typical literature-related writing assignment that you use with this class?
Please specify the type: _____
For this typical type of assignment, which of the following techniques do you use regularly with this class?

Provision for choice of topics: ____
Prewriting activities: ____
Multiple drafts: ____
Peer response groups: ____
Assignment of a grade: ____
Written comments: ____
Correction of errors in mechanics: ____

During the past week, approximately how much writing of any sort have students done for this class? _____ pages

What proportion of this writing is likely to be writing about literature? _____%

If possible, please include a copy of the most recent writing assignment for this class.

Please indicate how important each of the following approaches is in organizing the curriculum for this class.

	Major Importance				Minor Importance
Thematic units	5	4	3	2	1
Chronological study	5	4	3	2	1
Study of genres or types	5	4	3	2	1
Study of individual major works	5	4	3	2	1
Study of literature representing specific groups	5	4	3	2	1
Guided individual reading	5	4	3	2	1
Other (please specify): _____	5	4	3	2	1

If you would like a summary of the results, please include your name and mailing address. Please return your completed questionnaire to: CLTL, School of Education, 1400 Washington Avenue, Albany, NY 12222.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP.

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE (FORM B)

How many years have you taught English? _____ years
What is your highest degree (check one)?
___ Bachelor's ___Master's ___ Master's plus ___Doctorate
Preparation in English or a related field (check all that apply):
___Undergraduate Major ___Minor ___Graduate ___None
On the averge, how many classes do you teach each day? _____
What is the average class size? _____
How many different preparations does this represent? _____

From your current teaching schedule, select one class that is representative of your teaching of literature. Base your answers to the following questions on this one class.

What is the specific title of this course: _____
Is this class: ___required for the students taking it
___an option in a required area
___an elective
What grade level do the students primarily represent? _____
How many students are in this class (number on roll)? _____
Which of the following best describes this class (check one)?
___remedial ___nonacademic ___college preparatory ___honors ___mixed

Please indicate how often you use the following sources for the literary materials you use with this class?

	Regularly				Never
Literature anthology	5	4	3	2	1
Class sets of plays	5	4	3	2	1
Class sets of book-length texts	5	4	3	2	1
Class sets of poetry collections	5	4	3	2	1
Class sets of short stories	5	4	3	2	1
Books students purchase specifically for class	5	4	3	2	1
Books you purchase for student use	5	4	3	2	1
Dittoed or photocopied supplementary readings	5	4	3	2	1

Please indicate the approximate percentage of time allocated to the teaching of each of the following phases of English in this class:

Literature: _____%
Speech: _____%
Writing: _____%
Language (including grammar and usage): _____%
Other (please specify): _____%
(Total: 100%)

How adequate is the school library collection as a resource in the teaching of literature?
Circle one: (Excellent) 1 2 3 4 5 (Poor)

To what extent do you use the library in teaching this class for?

	Regularly	Sometimes	Never
Research papers and projects	___	___	___
Books for outside reading	___	___	___
Biographical information on authors	___	___	___
Collections of literary criticism	___	___	___
Films or videotapes	___	___	___
Individualized reading programs	___	___	___
Books to read aloud to students	___	___	___
Other (please specify)	___	___	___

Do you maintain a classroom book collection for this class? ___ yes ___no

To what extent do the following factors influence your book selection policies for this class?

	Major Influence				No Influence
Departmental syllabus	5	4	3	2	1
Parental censorship	5	4	3	2	1
Availability of texts	5	4	3	2	1
Departmental book selection policies	5	4	3	2	1
Literary merit	5	4	3	2	1
Likely appeal to students	5	4	3	2	1
Community pressure groups	5	4	3	2	1
Discussion with other teachers	5	4	3	2	1
Personal familiarity with the selection	5	4	3	2	1

During the past 5 days, what specific literary texts have students dealt with in class or for homework? (List authors and titles; add an extra page if necessary).

Novels: _____
Short stories: _____
Poems: _____
Plays: _____
Nonfiction: _____
Media: _____
Other selections: _____

The chart below is concerned with the different approaches you may take to different kinds of literary texts. For each type of text listed (poems, short stories, plays, and novels), please check those techniques and materials that you have found to be most successful with this class. Check all that apply.

	Poems	Short Stories	Plays	Novels
Class discussions of interpretations of the text	___	___	___	___
Class discussions of literary technique	___	___	___	___
Class discussion of literary or cultural history	___	___	___	___
Class discussion of students' responses	___	___	___	___
Lecture about the period, author, or interpretation	___	___	___	___
Small group discussions	___	___	___	___
Study guides for specific selections	___	___	___	___
Examination of professional criticism	___	___	___	___
Reading aloud to students	___	___	___	___
Reading aloud by students	___	___	___	___
Choice of "great works" from the Western tradition	___	___	___	___
Choice of selections by minority authors	___	___	___	___
Choice of selections by women	___	___	___	___
Choice of adolescent or young adult selections	___	___	___	___
Choice of selections from non-Western literatures	___	___	___	___

If you would like a summary of the results, please include your name and mailing address. Please return your completed questionnaire to: CLTL, School of Education, 1400 Washington Avenue, Albany, NY 12222.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP.

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE (FORM C)

How many years have you taught English? _____ years
What is your highest degree (check one)?
___ Bachelor's ___Master's ___ Master's plus ___Doctorate
Preparation in English or a related field (check all that apply):
___Undergraduate Major ___Minor ___Graduate ___None
On the average, how many classes do you teach each day? _____
What is the average class size? _____
How many different preparations does this represent? _____

To what extent is each of the following factors a strength or a weakness in the English program in your department? (Please rate on a scale from 5 [a strength] to 3 [neutral/doesn't matter] to 1 [definite weakness/lack]).

	Strength				Weakness
Preparation of the faculty	5	4	3	2	1
Intelligence of the students	5	4	3	2	1
Support of department chair	5	4	3	2	1
Support of principal	5	4	3	2	1
Community support	5	4	3	2	1
Departmental curriculum	5	4	3	2	1
Freedom to develop own style and approach	5	4	3	2	1
Staff development	5	4	3	2	1
Teaching load	5	4	3	2	1
Availability of resources and materials	5	4	3	2	1
Tracking	5	4	3	2	1
Programs for college bound students	5	4	3	2	1
Programs for nonacademic students	5	4	3	2	1
Writing program	5	4	3	2	1
Literature program	5	4	3	2	1

From your current teaching schedule, select one class that is representative of your teaching of literature. Base your answers to the following questions on this one class.

What is the specific title of this course: _____
Is this class:
___required for the students taking it
___an option in a required area
___an elective
What grade level do the students primarily represent? _____
How many students are in this class (number on roll)? _____
Which of the following best describes this class (check one)?
___remedial ___nonacademic ___college preparatory ___honors ___mixed

How important are each of the following goals for this class for the study of literature?

	Important				Unimportant
Pleasure in reading	5	4	3	2	1
Understand relationships of literature to life	5	4	3	2	1
Gain cultural literacy	5	4	3	2	1
Gain familiarity with literary terms	5	4	3	2	1
Reflect upon and understand own responses	5	4	3	2	1
Understand author's purpose	5	4	3	2	1
Learn to think critically	5	4	3	2	1
Develop respect for diverse opinions	5	4	3	2	1
Learn to analyze individual texts	5	4	3	2	1
Gain insight into human experience	5	4	3	2	1
Develop informed taste in literature	5	4	3	2	1

With this class, which of the following techniques are most important in helping students learn to do well in their study of literature?

	Important				Unimportant
Careful questioning about the content	5	4	3	2	1
Focusing on links to everyday experience	5	4	3	2	1
Careful line by line analysis	5	4	3	2	1
Encouraging alternative interpretations	5	4	3	2	1
Introducing literary terms	5	4	3	2	1
Organizing small group discussions	5	4	3	2	1
Organizing class discussions	5	4	3	2	1
Providing study guides for specific selections	5	4	3	2	1
Selecting readings of interest	5	4	3	2	1
Reading aloud to students	5	4	3	2	1
Encouraging awareness of the reading process	5	4	3	2	1
Providing for guided, individualized reading	5	4	3	2	1
Asking students to read aloud or dramatize selections	5	4	3	2	1
Using films or videos	5	4	3	2	1
Requiring memorization of selected passages	5	4	3	2	1
Encouraging wide reading	5	4	3	2	1

Have you experienced any problems with censorship related to the selections you teach, in this or any other class? ___yes ___no

If so, what were the selections involved? _____

How was the problem resolved? _____

How regularly do you use each of the following means of assessing student performance in literature?

	Regularly				Not at all
Unit tests	5	4	3	2	1
Quizzes	5	4	3	2	1
Departmental or district exams	5	4	3	2	1
Participation in discussion	5	4	3	2	1
Group or individual projects	5	4	3	2	1
Commerically available standardized tests	5	4	3	2	1
Journal responses	5	4	3	2	1
Formal essays focusing on literary analysis	5	4	3	2	1
Formal essays focusing on student responses or interpretations	5	4	3	2	1
Formal essays focusing on major themes or comparisons among texts	5	4	3	2	1
Study guides or worksheets	5	4	3	2	1
Role playing or dramatization	5	4	3	2	1
Brief written exercises	5	4	3	2	1
Other (please explain)	5	4	3	2	1

To what extent do you use a literature anthology in this course (check one)?

___not at all ___for supplementary reading ___ as main source of selections

How adequate do you find your anthologies to be:

as a source of selections? ___excellent ___adequate ___poor

as a source of teaching suggestions? ___excellent ___adequate ___poor

If you would like a summary of the results, please include your name and mailing address. Please return your completed questionnaire to: CLTL, School of Education, 1400 Washington Avenue, Albany, NY 12222.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP.

LIBRARIAN QUESTIONNAIRE

How many volumes are in the library? _____ volumes

How many volumes per pupil? _____ per pupil

How many books does your library circulate per week? _____ per week

How much money is allocated to the library annually for the purchase of books and magazines? $_____

How much per pupil? $_____

How much additional money is allocated for the purchase of other resources (e.g., videotapes, computer software)? $_____

How many full-time librarians do you have? _____
How many paid aides? _____
How many volunteers? _____

Is the library open weekends? ___yes ___no
If so, on what schedule?

Is the library open to the public? ___yes ___no
If so, please explain the arrangements:

Is the library used as a study hall or for non-library classes? ___yes ___no

What percentage of your books are on open shelves? _____%

How many students will the library accommodate? _____

In a typical class period, how many students use the library? _____

Does the library have space devoted to computer equipment or software? (If so, please explain.) ___yes ___no

Does the library have space devoted to other media equipment? ___yes ___no
(If so, please explain.)

Are there any limitations other than limited budgets imposed on the selection of library books? ___yes ___no
(If so, please explain.)

Do some classrooms in the school have their own special book collections for use during instruction? ___yes ___no
If so, what is their relationship to the library collection?

Do library staff meet with English teachers to identify resources for specific instructional units? ___regularly ___sometimes ___never
If so, please explain:

Does the library participate in any networks to make a greater range of material available to staff and students? (E.g., interlibrary loan arrangements; on-line database services). ___yes ___no
If so, please explain:

How would you rate the level of cooperation between the English department and the library?
___high ___moderate ___low

Please indicate which of the following selections are available in your library. Note any restrictions on availability.

____ Allende, The House of Spirits
____ Blume, Forever
____ Camus, The Stranger
____ Cleaver, Soul on Ice
____ Conrad, The Heart of Darkness
____ Cormier, The Chocolate War
____ Ellison, The Invisible Man
____ Faulkner, The Sound and the Fury
____ Garcia-Marquez, One Hundred Years of Solitude
____ Huxley, Brave New World
____ Joyce, Portrait of the Artist
____ Joyce, Ulysses
____ Lawrence, Sons and Lovers
____ McCullers, Member of the Wedding
____ Morrison, Song of Solomon
____ Orwell, 1984
____ Pym, Excellent Women
____ Rand, The Fountainhead
____ Salinger, Catcher in the Rye
____ Steinbeck, Grapes of Wrath
____ Stowe, Uncle Tom's Cabin
____ Walker, The Color Purple
____ Wright, Black Boy
____ Zindel, The Pigman

Many schools are still struggling to broaden the range of offerings to include more minorities and more women among the authors represented. Are there specific books by women or minorities that you have found to be particularly appealing to high school students? Please list your suggestions below:

Author	Title	Students most likely to be interested

Please describe any special features of your library program that might be helpful to other schools seeking to strengthen their overall program in literature.

Given the opportunity, what changes would you recommend to make your library more useful to your schools' program in literature?

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THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP!